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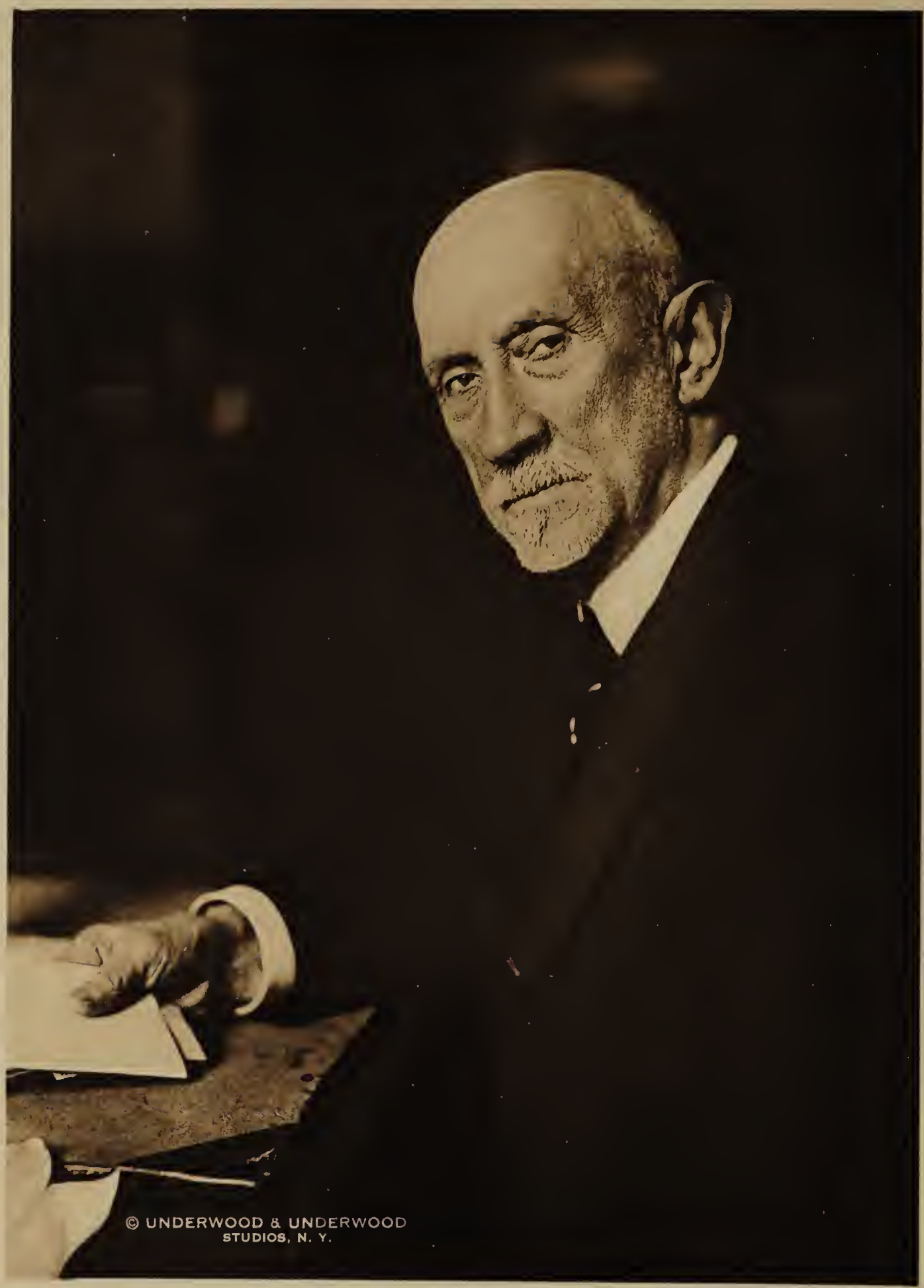

James L. Wells

THE BRONX AND ITS PEOPLE

A History

1609-1927

Board of Editors

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VOLUME I

THE LEWIS HISTORICAL PUBLISHING CO., Inc.
New York.
1927

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1927

FOREWORD

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WRITING the history of The Bronx has been a work of peculiar complexity. It is not and never has been a separate civic organization, as, for example, one of the cities of the State. Nor has it grown as a definite political territory, as, for instance, the County of Westchester. It was once part of that county, and it is today part of the City of New York. Nor was its annexation to New York City a single event in which a well-defined territory was given metropolitan status. It was taken from Westchester County in piecemeal fashion. It represented the coalition of many villages, and was assembled district by district, and township by township, in an uneven manner. Finally it attained itself the dignity of a borough; then became a county, rivalling in population the great historic county to which it was once the tip of the mainland; and while remaining as one of five boroughs in a single city has outstripped in population most of the great cities of the country. A civic organism of that character, once a vague sparsely populated region, then assuming a close design of well-defined features, then all the strength and dignity and density and importance of a new metropolitan status, with systems of thoroughfares and lines of transit without parallel elsewhere save in the gigantic city of which it has become a part, is a difficult entity to follow through a chameleon and astonishing history. But it has been interesting work, as spiritually profitable to the authors as we hope it will be to the reader.

The authors of this work have had recourse to the original sources wherever possible, but in tracing the history of the various territories that went to make up the borough they have made liberal use of the work of historians who have gone before them. They are in particular indebted to Scharf's "History of Westchester County," Bolton's "History of Westchester County," Jennings' "History of The Bronx," and Bonner's "New York, The World Metropolis." But they have left no source that might throw light on their subject unexplored, and have had recourse to works and authorities of every kind too numerous to be particularized.

The publishers of this work feel that they have been particularly fortunate in the editors who have presided over the work, who have been indefatigable in the aid they have extended to it whenever called

upon, who have shown a keen interest throughout, and who corrected a number of the chapters in manuscript. It is only fairness to them to say that the actual writing has been accomplished in the main by members of our staff of historians, all of them experienced writers, skilled in research and exposition, who nevertheless recognize that the work cannot escape the imperfections attaching to everything human. They recognize that much of the merit of the work is due to the superior knowledge of the Borough possessed by the distinguished trio of editors, all of them born in The Bronx, and identified with its interest and its development during the whole period of their lives. Mr. Wells, Mr. Haffen, and Mr. Briggs have been most closely associated with the events which led up to the establishment of The Bronx, the initiation and adoption of measures authorizing public improvements in the Borough, and the supervision of the construction of public works during the larger part of the period from annexation to the City of New York in the year 1874 to the present time.

Particular expression of appreciation should be made of the services of the Committee of Contributors and Advisers, whose members responded, in the main, to every call made upon them. This committee was composed as follows:

William T. Hornaday, former Director New York Zoological Park; Hon. John M. Tierney, Judge of the Supreme Court; John M. Haffen, Banker, President of The Bronx Board of Trade; Charles E. Reid, Executive Secretary of The Bronx Board of Trade; George W. Fennell, President The Bronx National Bank; Alfred M. Rogers, President Francis Rogers & Sons, Inc.; Dr. Charles J. Goeller, Physician; William H. Kephart, D. D.; Rev. John F. X. Murphy; Rabbi Julian J. Price; Prof. Alexander Haring, C.B., LL.B., LL.M.; John C. Hume, Topographical Engineer, The Bronx; H. C. Appleton; Dr. George F. Brewster; George W. Markey, Editor and Publisher "The North Side News;" Edward R. Cunniffe, M. D.; Henry Roth, M. D.; Philip Eichler, M. D.; Nathan B. Van Etten, M. D.

Several organizations placed valuable engravings and photographs at the disposal of the work, and these are, in each instance, credited to the proper source, additional acknowledgment and appreciation of this courtesy being made in this place.

That the history may fill the place for which it was designed and for which the labors of its many contributors and supporters qualify it is the earnest desire of those who have sponsored it.

THE PUBLISHERS

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PART I

GENERAL HISTORY

CHAPTER I

THE STORY OF THE LAND—GEOLOGY AND TOPOGRAPHY

The Bronx has in the last generation assumed the proportions of a great civic organism, which, elsewhere than under the shadow of Manhattan, would make it an independent city of fame. There are few other tracts of land in the country that can point to a development so rapid. It has become largely residential, a home borough for the workers of Manhattan as well as for the workers in the other parts of the city. It has become also a great commercial region. It cannot boast of the great concentration of power and wealth which is the essence of Manhattan. It can boast chiefly that that power and that wealth are largely also its own possession and its own work. It can glory in the fact that if it is not the heart and brain it is at least a powerful limb of the earth's greatest city. But it has also numerous other features that make it interesting ground, as distinctive in its way as Manhattan, as Brooklyn, as Queens, and as Staten Island.

The Primordial Bronx—Let us begin by looking at it from the distant angle of some supposititious Archæan aborigine who saw it first rise with Manhattan and adjoining lands over the waves of the primordial seas. It is a fact that to many the expositions of geology are as remote and meaningless and ghostlike as a cloud sailing lazily on a distant horizon. The mere run of the language, the collocation of words and phrases—"stratified rocks," "igneous agencies," "anticline and syncline," "basaltic columns," "Silurian animals,"—conjure up dreary regions so far removed from practical interest that one grudges even a preliminary effort at comprehending what they mean, assuming they have any other than an imaginary meaning. And yet there is hardly any other study that comes so near to us and is so rich in reward as geology, once the fundamental principles are brought home to us. For the raw data for our thinking lies under our very feet and constitutes the environment on all sides of us. The path along which we walk, the ground through which the path is cut, the flow of the river, the rustle of the trees, the configuration of the land, the distant peak, the nearer palisades, the slope of the hill, the dip of the valley—all these things have meanings to which geology provides us with the key. The earth speaks to us with a voice as familiar and comprehensible as the conversation of the friend with whom we drink our coffee. The geologist is not a whitebearded phil-

osopher who meanders through caves and peers eccentrically at rocks and mud. He is a man of illuminated common sense who sees visions of the subsistence of which the crowd does not even dream. Like the philosopher his effort is to see things not as they appear to be but as they are. He is looking for reality through the crystal of appearance. He seeks to get farther and farther away from that vision of the world on which the newly-born child first sets it eyes—the big, blooming, buzzing world without meaning, the mosaic of flat surface and kaleidoscopic color without form or perspective, the chaos of sight and sound which assails the eyes and ears of the babe without previous experience. He seeks to continue the mental process by which the infant turns mere sensation into rounded perception, gradually metamorphoses the blob of white above him into his mother's face, the rhomboid of brown into the mahogany table, and the circle of gray into a bouncing ball. The young shipping clerk out for an afternoon in the parks laughs consumedly at the great boulder of a hundred tons which he can rock with his hands and looks at the planed and polished rock beneath it as a convenient place for a picnic without further meaning. To the philosopher and geologist on the other hand that boulder and that scored and striated surface of rock and the entire environment tell a story as definite as the largest print. He notes first of all that the boulder is of a kind of rock completely different from the rock on which it stands and from all the natural rock of the region. What superhuman power carried it from its native locality and placed it there? What power smoothed its angles? What grinding and tearing chiselled the face of the rock on which it lay? The answers come as instinctively as the queries, and in a moment the geologist is away in the Glacial Period when great continental ice sheets worked their way southward from the pole through northern America and northern Europe through several hundred thousand years. He knows that that giant boulder has been carried by glaciers from a point perhaps a hundred miles to the north and was there deposited when the ice sheet receded. He sees not merely that boulder but hundreds of other loose rocks all around which have undergone a similar voyage. He sees the great moraine of sand and gravel and loose stone covering the surface everywhere, and he sees the stratified rock underneath this more recent mantle and knows that rock had been laid down in prehistoric seas before the travail within the earth had lifted the continent above the waters. There is not a rock, not a tree, not a waterfall, not a stream, not a river bank, not a cliff that to the geologist's vision has not a story to tell, so that the landscape, a mere escape and change of environment to the average city dweller, is to the higher intelligence a haunt invested with innumer-

able spirits, a great world of meaning, a congregation of symbols that are transparent curtains to immense revelatory scenes beyond.

Geology North of Manhattan—The Borough of The Bronx embraces a region that stretches outward to the Sound and encloses the low-winding valley of the River Bronx—a picturesque but shrunken stream which only in spring exhibits the congruous features of a river. The borough continues the geological features of Manhattan and in the main is a group of north and south ridges with a strike approximating that of New York, declining eastward to the waters of the Sound from the high cliffs of Fordham and Van Cortlandt Park, and separated by valleys, or lower areas, with a drainage to the southeast, and more directly south between Fordham and the highland of the Hudson. It has not been so much opened as the region of Manhattan Island, though in its general aspects of gneiss rock and granite veins, surmounted here and there by prominences of limestone, it displays the features familiar to all observers on Manhattan itself and promises the same mineral disclosures when more thoroughly explored. The glaciation is marked and significant and, in this respect, it forms only a pendant to the identical features of Manhattan Island. The gneiss ridges on the north side of Westchester Avenue, the gneiss rock of Fordham Heights, the gneiss in The Bronx gorge, all present and duplicate the familiar features of Manhattan Island.

The Borough of Manhattan and The Borough of The Bronx have a common geological expression; the boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens are identical in geological character and carry to its most typical limit the drift area so largely reduced on Manhattan Island by municipal changes, while the borough of Richmond bears an individual geological structure involving peculiar features not observed in the others. In geological affinities Manhattan and The Bronx are allied to northern or primordial, even Archæan structures; Richmond, Kings, and Queens to southern and recent, though, in Richmond there is a problematic nucleus similar to those of Manhattan Island. Geologists have called attention to the rock character of the highlands for north of Manhattan Island as being composed of fragmental rocks, chiefly feldspar and quartz, and mainly designated under the term *granulite.* They have traced a series of beds of rocks over these southward and have urged that the red gneiss, which they consider typically shown at Yonkers, and therefore called by them *Yonkers gneiss*, underlies the gray gneiss of Fordham or *Fordham gneiss*, and that this again underlies the micaceous gneiss or schists of Manhattan Island, which latter they term the *Manhattan gneiss.* The view is held as having considerable interest and draws attention to the fact of the varying character of these three

groups of rocks. Attention has been drawn to the more ferruginous-stained reddish-stained reddish gneiss on and near Jerome Avenue, a little north of the New York City line, made up of small grains of quartz, fragments of reddish orthoclase and biotite; viz., the Yonkers gneiss. Then they may notice the Fordham gneiss, two hundred feet thick, which is gray, made up of biotite and quartz, with layers of pure biotite schist and white quartz rocks, to be met at Fordham Heights and on Seventh Avenue and Northern Boulevard. And then the mica schist or very micaceous gneisses of New York Island. The so-called Poughquag quartzite may be represented in The Bronx borough by a very siliceous schist.

Topographical Features—An instructive review of topographical features in The Bronx is afforded by crossing from the Subway Elevated Railroad Station at 174th Street to the Harlem River; dark gneiss ridges are seen on Third Avenue and Jackson Avenue further south, with low, smoothed, abraded gneiss hills and intermediate depressions generally declining towards the Sound and East River, where marshy emarginations, resistant strips of rock and islets compose an immature coast line. From 174th Street westward the observer first passes over the rounded degraded knobs of rock in Crotona Park, at a considerable elevation, surmounting a sharp rise from the West Farms section, while Crotona Park reveals a folded area. The exposure of gneiss in Crotona Park shows in places a very slatey and fissile rock, with corrugated beds and granite veinings. Morainal heaps and alluvial coverings hide or bury the gneissic contours, seen somewhat markedly at Third Avenue and 175th Street. Next succeeds the Tremont gulch or channel, steeply walled by the ridge of Echo Park, where a strong development of white gneissoid granite is seen, sheathed in gray flexuous ribbons of mica schist. To the west again, as the hill slopes to Jerome Avenue, a vast hill of glacial sand occurs, through which the trolley tracks pass by a tunnel way. Westward by Tremont Avenue another ridge is crossed made up of laminated, upturned mica gneiss, its scars and erosions molded into a smooth hill by alluvial and drift accumulations of sand and soil. In places the rock becomes granitic through retaining a gneissoid structure. On Aqueduct Avenue, at the top of this ridge, granite developments of considerable volume occur. A hill with boulders is seen north of the Public School, from whose western porch the Harlem valley is commanded, the Fort George Heights, and, through the Dyckman Street intervale, the wooded crests of the Palisades. This last ridge is heavily banked with drift on the west. South again along Sedgwick Avenue towards Washington and High Bridges, the gray gneiss, fine-grained, folded and swerving in thin sheets, is conspicuous. Low

cliffs of the gneiss have been well exposed north of 161st Street on Mott Avenue. The topographical expression is clearly north and south ridges and separating valleys. This is continued westward over Manhattan Island to the Hudson, with an accentuation in the Harlem River defile, possibly deepened by faults.

The limestone beds of The Bronx lie in the river valleys, or more correctly, the rivers have formed their valleys in the limestone depressions as more easily eroded and dissolved. Tippett's Brook has worn its channels partially in a limestone rock, the northern extension of the Kingsbridge dolomite; the Bronx River has its head in limestone at and north of Williamsbridge; and it may be so with Westchester and West Farms creeks. These limestone beds were traversed by the subway tunnel under the Harlem River, and a deep open cut made in them at 149th Street, toward Third Avenue, brought in view their crystalline integrity and bedded structure. Limestone beds are seen at Jerome Avenue reservoir, where actinolite, titanite, pyrite, pyrrhotite, orthoclase are developed in a metamorphic seam.

The surface of The Bronx is such as to present all varieties of scenery; and in its wild state it must have presented sylvan scenes of surpassing beauty. Today much of that beauty is retained and there are points of vantage where the vistas of hill and stream are worth coming from afar to see. The elevated portions of the borough are continuations of the ranges of hills of Westchester County, and, speaking generally, run north and south, parallel to the Hudson. The valleys between are occupied by streams flowing to the southward and are comparatively level, so that they became the way of the earlier roads, and later of the railroads. These elevations rise to a height of two hundred feet in many places, and do not fall below a hundred, except in the slopes to the valleys. The westernmost ridge extends from Yonkers to Spuyten Duyvil Creek, through Mount Saint Vincent, Riverdale, and Hudson Park. In Riverdale is the highest elevation in the borough, 282 feet. This ridge has a sharp descent to the Hudson and presents a bold frontage when viewed from that stream. The streams emptying into the Hudson are few and short; the longest being Dogwood Brook near West 247th Street. On the east the slope is almost equally abrupt to the valley of Tippett's Brook. The lower part of the valley is flat meadow land, in places over a mile and a half in width. At its southern end is a rocky islet in this sea of meadow, upon which the principal part of the former village of Kingsbridge is situated; in ancient times it was the core of the island of Paparinemo, or Paparinemin.

The second ridge extends from the Yonkers line to Central Bridge, and is the dividing line between Tippett's Brook and the Harlem River

on the west, and the Bronx River, Cromwell's Creek, and Mill Brook on the east. It presents a bold front to the Harlem River all the way from Kingsbridge to Central Bridge. Its southern terminus is known as Devoe's Point, after one of the earlier proprietors, a descendant of the original patentee, Daniel Turneur. This ridge is known as the Fordham Ridge; its northern portion is called Woodlawn Heights. Several brooks find their way down the easterly slope into the Bronx River. The valley between Fordham Ridge and the ridge on the easterly side of the Bronx valley is wide at its southern part, allowing of several minor ridges forming the valley of Mill Brook. The ridge forming the eastern side of the Bronx valley has a considerable elevation at Wakefield and Williamsbridge, but it falls aways gradually towards the shores of the East River and the Sound, so that they present in general the appearance of low, salt meadows, which, at unusual high tides, are awash. Castle Hill Neck below Unionport is an elevation of sixty feet, separating Pugsley's and Westchester creeks. To the eastward of Westchester Creek is Throgg's Neck, which does not rise higher than fifty feet. Before the Westchester meadows were filled in, Eastchester Bay, the Sound, and Westchester Creek virtually used to make an island of Throgg's Neck at high tides.

Tippett's Brooks has its rise near Valentine's Hill in Yonkers and empties into Spuyten Duyvil Creek, almost equally dividing the former township of Kingsbridge. Its Indian name was Mosholu. Just below High Bridge there was formerly a small stream entering into the Harlem River, which constituted the northern boundary of Turneur's patent; it has disappeared under modern improvements. A considerable extent of wet meadow lines the shore of the Harlem River below the Fordham Ridge. Below High Bridge, this meadow formerly constituted Crab, or "Crabbe" Island, of the ancient records. Cromwell's Creek had its origin about East 178th Street and Jerome Avenue, and emptied into the Harlem River south of Central Bridge, but the stream has been filled in. Jerome Avenue follows the valley of the old stream for a considerable distance. Mill Brook was an important watercourse in former days, and it about equally divided the ancient manor of Morrisania. It had its rise near East 170th Street, between Claremont and Crotona parks, and emptied into the East River near the manor house. In the improvements, in the decade before 1900, the stream disappeared within a great sewer under Brook Avenue, which follows approximately the bed of the old stream.

Bungay Creek was composed of two branches rising in Crotona Park and uniting at East 170th Street, whence it flowed into the East River above Port Morris. Intervale Avenue follows very closely the course

of the old stream. From its crossing at Westchester Avenue to the river, it formed the boundary between the manor of Morrisania and the West Farms patent of Richardson and Jessup. The next stream to the eastward is the longest and most important of all, the Bronx, which has given its name to the borough. It has its origin in the distant hills of North Castle and flows into the East River after a course of more than thirty miles. Its Indian name was Aquahung, "a high bluff or bank"; but it derives its present name from the first white owner of the soil, Jonas Bronk. It is navigable for small vessels for about three miles from its mouth. It was a very important stream during the Revolution as, during the Westchester campaign of 1776, it constituted a barrier between the armies of Washington and Howe. There is a tradition that Admiral Howe impressed some Americans familiar with the locality to pilot his ships up the Bronx in order to bombard Washington out of his entrenched camps on the west of the stream. It is a little difficult to imagine how a 74-gun ship of the line could sail up the delightful, shallow stream.

In the year 1798 New York was ravaged by yellow fever, and on its subsidence the question was agitated of furnishing the inhabitants with an abundant supply of pure, fresh water. The Bronx seemed to the authorities to have been provided by nature for the purpose, and an engineer was sent to survey it and plan for its use; but upon his report that the project would cost the city $1,000,000, the corporation withdrew on account of the expense. Aaron Burr, who was at this time forming his Manhattan Company, also probably helped them to an adverse decision by holding out the hope of supplying the city with water under the charter of his company. Until the Croton River was selected as the source of New York's water supply the Bronx was the favorite with the authorities and engineers, commending itself on account of the purity of its waters, its nearness to the city, the feasibility of damming its waters at Williamsbridge, and, especially, on the score of economy. Its waters were impounded for the use of the Annexed District, in 1888, by building a dam at Kensico, above White Plains. The Bronx of today still retains many of the beauties that inspired the pen of Drake, but its waters have lost their former purity. The land near the mouth of the Bronx and beyond is low, salt meadow, interspersed by small tidal streams. The most important of these is Wilkin's, or Pugsley's Creek, which forms the landward boundary of Cornell's Neck. Between this creek and Westchester Creek is Castle Hill Neck, so called because the Weckquaegeek Indians had a large castle, or stockade, on the high land between the creeks. On the south of Throgg's Neck is Baxter's Creek, and on the north side, Weir Creek. Throgg's Neck on the bor-

ough side, and Willett's Point on Long Island, or Queens Borough, sides are the separating points between the East River and the Sound.

Eastchester Bay is an estuary between Throgg's Neck on the south and City Island and Rodman's Neck on the north. At its head, Eastchester Creek, or Hutchinson's River, empties after its course of eight miles from Scarsdale. The Indian name of the stream was Aqueannoncke, or Aqueanouncke, a variant of Aquahung. Its lower portion is a tidal stream, whose depth and course have been changed by the Federal Government, so that it is navigable to the city line. Black Dog Brook, the former Eastchester boundary line, flows into Eastchester Creek at Baychester, while a short distance above is Rattlesnake Brook, whose mouth is called Mill Creek, from the old tide mill, which was located there. Between Rodman's Neck and Hunter Island is Pelham Bay. The islands in the borough included Paparinemo and Crab, both of which have disappeared. Lying in the East River, a short distance above Port Morris, are North and South Brother islands, called by the Dutch *Gesellen*. The former has a lighthouse on it and is used by the city government for hospital cases of infectious and contagious diseases. Riker's Island is much larger and lies toward the mouth of Flushing Bay, Long Island. This island, as well as several others, was used during the Civil War for the encampment and drilling of recruits, and also for hospital purposes. It was bought by the city in 1884, and for some time was used as a dumping ground for the refuse of the city, much to the disgust of the inhabitants of the borough who found it almost impossible to breathe when the wind blew from the water. The Board of Health finally stopped the nuisance, which was endangering the health of the people. The island is still used for city refuse, but incineration plants have been installed and no odor is perceptible except when close to the island. Riker's Island originally contained eighty-seven acres, but extensive crib work has been constructed and there has been much work of filling so that the island contains over four hundred acres used for municipal purposes. The work has been done by prisoners from Blackwell's, or Welfare Island, the first batch of prisoners, a hundred and fifty in number, being transferred to the island June 21, 1903. A lighthouse on Riker's Island helps to mark the navigation of the East River. Between Throgg's Neck and Long Island are several rocky islets visible at low tide which are called the "Stepping Stones"; on one of them is a lighthouse.

City Island, comprising two hundred and thirty acres, lies off Rodman's Neck on the northerly side of Eastchester Bay, and is a long, narrow strip only a few feet above the waters of the Sound. Hart Island, of eighty-five acres, lies to the eastward of City Island; in 1774 Oliver De

Lancey, of West Farms, came into possession of it. It was then called Spectacle Island or Little Minnefords. Later, it passed into the possession of the Haights and Rodmans, then into the hands of John Hunter, and finally into the hands of the city of New York, which maintains there a potter's field, a hospital for convalescents, and a workhouse under the Department of Charities. High Island lies north of City Island, and in the vicinity of these larger islands are several rocky islets called Rat Island, the Chimney Sweeps, and the Blauzes. Bolton says that this section was formerly the resort of immense numbers of wild ducks, as many as one thousand being shot in six hours. Today, when there is bad weather in the Sound, many vessels of all kinds seek refuge under the lee of the islands until the weather improves. Goose Island is a small island lying in the mouth of Eastchester Creek.

The southern extremity of the Riverdale Ridge is called Spuyten Duyvil Neck. The fourth proprietor was George Tibbett, or Tippett, whose house was near the end of the point; in consequence the neck was known in ancient times as Tippett's Neck, or Tibbett's Hill. The neck passed into the hands of the Berriens by the marriage of one of them with Dorcas, the great-great-granddaughter of the original Tippett; and after the Revolution and until the present, the promontory has been known as Berrien's Neck. The Manhattan tribe of Indians had an important village and castle called Nipinichsen, "a small pond or watering place," upon the point, to which, and to the section adjoining, they applied the name of Sharockkappock, or Shorakapkock, which means, "as far as the sitting-down place," a reference, perhaps to the fact that the traveller had to sit down and wait for the tide to fall at the wading-place across the creek. Port Morris is situated upon a neck of land jutting into the East River. It was originally called Stony Point, or, since it was low land, sometimes surrounded by water at high tide, Stony Island. This section has been filled in by the city, sewers built, and streets laid out; and several large factories have been erected by private parties. It was formerly a part of the manor of Morrisania; and the Morrises counted on making it a rival to New York on account of the depth of the water and the convenience of access for large vessels, the "Great Eastern" having actually anchored off the point. In fact, Port Morris was for several years a regular port of entry with its own custom-house.

Adjoining Port Morris on the east is Oak Point, formerly called Leggett's Point, from a family of the name who owned it from pre-Revolutionary days. Gabriel Leggett, the founder of the family, married into the Richardson family and thus came into possession of this part of the West Farms tract. The neck to the west of the Bronx River is

called Hunt's Point after the proprietor of 1688. It really consists of two points, the more westerly being called Barretto's Point, after Francis Barretto, a wealthy New York merchant who settled here about 1840. The Indian name of Hunt's Point was *Quinnahung*, which means "a long, high place." The neck between the Bronx River and Wilkin's Creek is known as Cornell's Neck, after the proprietor of 1646. Its extremity is called Clason's Point, after a later owner. Its Indian name was *Snakapins*, probably a personal name, or, perhaps a corruption of *Sagapin*, a ground nut, or of *Chincapin*, the dwarf chestnut. Castle Hill Neck is the next point to the eastward. On the eastern side of Westchester Creek is Ferris Neck, so called after the family who owned it; its extremity is called "Old Ferry Point," from the ferry that connected it with Whitestone, Long Island, from ancient times. Throgg's Neck is the long, narrow point on which Fort Schuyler is situated. It gets its name from the original proprietor of 1643, John Throgmorton, or Throckmorton. Upon its northerly side is Locust Point, or Island. Between the Sound on the north and Eastchester Bay on the south is the largest of all the necks in the borough. From its first white inhabitant, Anne Hutchinson, it was called by the Dutch, Annes Hoeck, that is Anne's Neck. Later when Thomas Pell became proprietor of this whole section the neck was called Pell's Neck, or Point; and after the formation of the manor Pelham Neck. A later owner sold to Samuel Rodman the end of the neck opposite City Island, and hence we have the name by which it is known today, Rodman's Neck.

Topography and the Glacial Period—So much for the topography. It will be worth while to give some attention to the tale the topography tells and in particular to that part of it that deals with the Ice Age. A great mass of ice once moved slowly over the district, leaving the traces that exist today in the form of gigantic boulders and layers of rock that are polished until they fairly shine. "Looking backward through the centuries" to quote the words of one interpreter of the script written on the face of the region, "the populous city fades from sight as a dissolving view, and a great sheet of ice appears. It is the glacial epoch, the ice age, and we are looking backward, not through hundreds of years only, but through thousands of years. We are contemplating 'terrestrial map-making.' The Divine Builder is laying the foundations." Scattered through the borough there are evidences everywhere existing that were left when the immense glacier melted and carried its margin to the north. Some of the burden it left behind had been brought to the district from hundreds and even thousands of miles away. The principal and the best known was recently destroyed. This was the old "Pudding Rock," that was once a prominent landmark at the intersection of Boston

Road and Cauldwell Avenue. Many were the tales told of this huge mound of rock. Rising "not unlike a pudding in a bag," it was gracefully ornamented at the top by an attractive group of cedar trees, its dimensions being twenty-five feet high and thirty-five feet in diameter —a truly great boulder. The Indians were not slow in discovering that it had a natural fireplace on one side, where they cooked their oysters and clams and held their corn-feasts.

When the Boston Road was opened Pudding Rock became a camping place of the Huguenots, on their way to worship in New Amsterdam, from New Rochelle. Then came the scientist who at once announced that Pudding Rock was an alien in the region and did not belong to any of the natural rocks in the vicinity. It was in reality a glacial waif, left stranded by the mass of ice that had borne it hither. Another famous glacial stone is the Split Rock of Pelham Bay Park on Collins Lane or Split Rock Road. Cleft directly in the middle, with a good sized tree growing in the fissure, this great boulder is one of the sights of the neighborhood, and stands a few feet south of this historic roadway, not far from the city line. Rivalling Split Rock in interest is the famous Rocking Stone of Bronx Park, a little west of the buffalo range in the southerly portion of the Zoölogical Park. This, according to accounts, was a source of great wonderment to the Indians, who were in the habit of gathering round it and holding medicine dances after the fashion of their tribe. In the days before there was a Bronx Park, this rocking stone stood on the extensive estate of the Lydigs, and it is said that the foreman of the place attempted to drag it away from the spot it had occupied for so many centuries. The combined efforts of twenty-four oxen, it is said, proved unavailing to stir it from its place, and yet anyone, by pushing from the right direction, can easily cause it to rock back and forth.

> A rock, chance poised and balanced lay,
> So that a stripling arm might sway,
> A mass no host could raise.
> In nature's rage at random thrown,
> Yet trembling like the Druid's stone,
> On its precarious base.

This rocking stone, like the others, is completely different in its mineralogy from the rock on which it rests. Had the glacier carried it but a little further south, it would be in soft earth instead of on ice-polished veins of rock. Doubtless not a few similar boulders were carried by the ice sheet and thrust into the sea.

On a section of the historic roadway from which the Split Rock may be seen, between Barrow station and City Island, rises a solitary senti-

nel, emblazoned with a bronze tablet and known as "Glover's Rock," in commemoration of the masterly retreat conducted by Colonel Glover during the Revolution, holding in check the redcoats under Howe, and enabling Washington with his men to reach a place of safety. It is about opposite "Jack's Rock," one of the best fishing resorts in the neighborhood. Within the limits of Bronx Park, of glacial curiosities, too important to be passed over, there are the glacial grooves, indentations in the solid rock, showing where the mass of ice ploughed its way along, leaving these deep furrows in its wake. In the precipitious side of a cliff is the "Indian Well," also styled the "Indian Bath," a rocky basin perhaps used by the Red Men as a place to grind their corn, in the hollow of which, some large stone, whirled round and round by the action of the ice sheet, carved out this deep hole. Then the outside of the cliff evidently fell forward towards the river, releasing the stone that had done the work, but leaving its resting place behind. Somewhat to the south will be found the "Bear's Den," a romantic spot where the rocks were piled perpendicularly by some great force, between them being a natural cave in which a family of bears may have made its home and reared its cubs. To the south of the "Bear's Den" may be seen the "Indian Burying Ground," where a mass of stones are standing on end in truly druidical fashion. Whether this be the work of the ice or the Indians or white men, there it remains, one of the curiosities of the Botanical Garden. Then there is the great boulder, called the "Black Rock," partially imbedded in the salt marshes to the south of the Westchester Turnpike, not far from Pugsley's Causeway. This is supposed by some to be a meteorite, but at any rate there it lies, deeply sunk in the ground, within sight of the home of the Westchester Golf Club. Overlooking the new Jerome Park Reservoir, just in front of the register's office, stands another remarkable rock, fortunately on city property, and thus likely to be preserved. If we pass to the southwest, just outside the reservoir's domain, we will come upon a flat surface of rock, bearing very distinctly the marks of the grinding of the glacier. Clearly indented also are two depressions, the rough size and shape of human feet. We would have to imagine a glacial man of extraordinary deportment, however, to think of him being responsible for those two footprints in the plastic rock. He must have stood with his toes turned far out, almost too far to have rendered it possible. There are many other boulders that have as yet withstood the advancing march of civilization, such as the one on the top of the ridge overlooking Jerome Avenue, and the great rock near the southerly limit of Claremont Park. They are witnesses to the vast age of solitude that preceded the coming of humankind, mileposts in the long path of development that had to go before

the region was made habitable for the frail energy of man. They are relics from before the age of the mastodon, and the woolly rhinoceros, and have come to us out of epochs so distant that it is hard for the mind to grasp an idea of the time that has intervened. They bring home to us the lesson that we are surrounded by mystery and infinity, and that we and our environment are not the prosaic beings we appear to be with the novelty worn off, but are an incomprehensible amalgam, the precipitation of forces now working and for ever to be at work.

Geological History—Placing the geological history of New York and The Bronx in its relation to North American geology in general, it is to be noted that in America an early architectonic outline of a primordial continent appears with two limbs stretching southward. These enclose a broad and shallow basin more open on the west, the floor of which underwent secular changes of elevation and depression. Generally these changes enlarged the land surfaces, progressively through geological time, from north to south, and inwardly on the edges of the two limbs, while on the extreme east and west the continent also grew outward, in an encroachment on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The sedimentation that built up these areas was originally derived from the primary rocks and from the debris of the calcareous parts of sea-animals. Much re-sedimentation from previously lithified sediments contributed towards the extension of the continent at interior points and along oceanic margins, and with this were occasional injections of igneous rock. This earliest, or Archæan continent, was thrown somewhat to the east, with the outlying southern extensions existing as linear strips or lenticular islands arranged on the east in axial lines that run northeast and southwest, and on the west, northwest and southeast. But these elevations, in their structural relations, define themselves as parts of a lithic block of comparative shallow submergence which stood between the two oceans—which were abysmal creases on either side of it, and from which rose these archetypal outlines of the North American continent. The extent and parts of the Archæan area on the Atlantic border are thus outlined by Professor James D. Dana:

On the Atlantic border there is the long Appalachian protaxis, extending interruptedly from Canada south of the St. Lawrence, along the higher land of Vermont; eastern Berkshire in Massachusetts; Putnam, Orange, and Rockland counties in New York, and Sussex in New Jersey, making the Highland range, which crosses the Hudson between Fishkill and Peekskill; constituting some ridges in southeastern Pennsylvania; thence continuing southwestward along the Piedmont Belt, and through Virginia and North Carolina, constituting in the latter State the Black Mountains; thence into South Carolina and Georgia.

To the northeastward, over New England to Newfoundland there are other

parallel ranges, bounding broad valleys or basins, as follows: (1) To the east of the Connecticut valley at intervals from Canada to Connecticut. (2) Farther east, from near Chaleur Bay, on the Gulf of St. Lawrence, through New Brunswick, southwest to the coast of Maine (including the Mount Desert rocks) and into eastern Massachusetts. (3) The Acadian Range, along western Newfoundland and central Nova Scotia; then submerged off the coast of Maine and Massachusetts; then over southeastern Massachusetts, and probably along Long Island. (4) A central Newfoundland range, which may have had a submarine extension along Sable Island and the shoals about it, east of Nova Scotia. (5—6) The other ranges farther east.

The Acadian is the longest of these Archæan ranges; it is the chief eastern belt of the Archæan on the Atlantic border, and is the strictly Acadian protaxis. Its partial submergence is not in doubt; for, besides indications of this along the seabottom south of Nova Scotia, there is proof of subsidence of several hundred feet in the fiords of Maine and the coast, in the Bay of Fundy, in Massachusetts, and Narragansett Bays and the Long Island Sound. The combination of the Acadian and Appalachian protaxes determined the existence of the great Middle Bay of the Atlantic coast (the southern Bay of Dana extended from Florida to Cape Hatteras, the Eastern Bay from Nantucket Island northward), and in the region of their junction lies the Bay of New York with the mouth of the Hudson. Thus the foundations were laid in Archæan time.

Geology of New York—Spurs from the Archæan terrain reached southward in Westchester County, New York, and western Connecticut, and one of these formed the nucleal member of the Geology of New York, a peninsulated tract built outwards by additions of sediment. This tract, elevated, by reason of very extraordinary superficial contraction of the earth's crust, became variously modified by metamorphism, invaded by dike rocks, and mineralized by chemical readjustment of its elements. It remained apparently unmodified, except as acted upon by the atmospheric agencies and by the ice of the Ice Age, and it also remained permanently above the ancient seas throughout the long periods of geologic time from the close of the Lower Silurian to modern and recent days. But on Staten Island and on Long Island later deposits, younger than the Paleozoic, appear.

The most significant and interesting formations in Manhattan and The Bronx are the crystalline rocks. These are bodies of mineral aggregates in which the component parts are separable minerals, and they are almost exclusvely gneisses, schists, granites, and limestones. The same rocks, and, it may be conceded, the same formations extend over western and northern Connecticut, where the formations, as given by H. E. Gregory, are the Becket gneiss, considered as a pre-Cambrian complex equivalent to the Fordham gneiss of the New York quadrangle; the Poughquag quartzite, found in the Borough of the Bronx, of Cambrian age; the Stockbridge limestone, of Cambro-Ordovician age, made referable to the Kingsbridge limestones on New York island; the Berkshire schist of Upper Ordovician age (Hudson River), and represented

in the prevalent Manhattan schists and gneisses. The mineral composition of these rocks embraces quartz, mica, feldspar, hornblende, dolomite, with a numerous assemblage of accessory minerals and displays contrasted or varied aspects of texture, solidity, or position. They are related to the extended development of the crystalline rocks in New England, which, if regarded as original sediments, shore deposits, or unconsolidated mineral accumulations, have put on a lithological phase of construction in which their first or earlier state and stratification have completely disappeared or been radically modified. This change has supervened through the agency of metamorphism. As Professor H. E. Gregory has said: "An explanation of sedimentary rocks requires a knowledge of the forces operating at the present time on the surface of the earth; it is necessary to understand the action of rivers, wind, ice, etc.; a complete understanding of the crystallines involves a knowledge of the forces which are at work within the interior of the earth, as well as an understanding of the chemical and mineralogical composition of the rocks as they exist."

Crystalline Masses—The development of such crystalline masses means a long history. If the original sediments were muds or granular mineral aggregates, or if the original rocks were lavas, they underwent initial changes into crystalline complexes, which again under strain, pressure, and heat, assumed new mineral constitutions. The mineral feldspar can become changed into quartz and muscovite mica, or, with added magnesium and iron elements, into quartz and biotite mica, or into quartz and chlorite, the free quartz in such cases being supplied by the large percentage of silica in the feldspar (65 per cent), exceeding by almost twenty per cent the amount of silica necessary for the chemical composition of muscovite. Hornblende is changed to biotite and chlorine, and again, secondarily, to zoisite and epidone. The mineral agite changes to hornblende, and it is thought that by addition of needed elements a dolomite (the carbonate of calcium and magnesium) can become hornblende, a variable silicate of aluminum, iron, calcium, magnesium, and the alkalies. Throughout these metamorphoses the mica elements retain permanency or are an ultimate term in the transitions. The pressure, almost inevitable as an agent in these changes, gives flatness and parallelism to the resultant minerals, and the schists and gneisses which contain them are banded, fissile, laminated, splitting into rudely smooth leaves or cakes, or exhibiting schistosity, which in the very compact slates becomes fissility, whereby the slate rock cleaves into thin and useful plates. The minerals that play the most conspicuous part in the structure of the crystalline rocks are the feldspars (silicates of aluminum, calcium, potassium, and sodium), quartz

(oxide of silicon, silica), the micas (silicates of aluminum, magnesium, potassium), and amphibole (hornblende), with pyroxene, the last two related minerals having composite composition (for the most part silicates of aluminum, calcium, magnesium, and iron).

Among the crystalline rocks granite takes a prominent place. It is quite noticeably contrasted with the gneisses and layered rocks from its massive and heterogeneous texture. Its component minerals are not arranged in sheets, but are irregularly intercrystallized and interlocked, though, under pressure again, granites become granite-gneisses and assume schistosity. Granites are contrasted with the gneisses as massive rocks, made up of feldspar, quartz, and mica, which are mixed together and intercrystallized with accessory minerals. They are regarded as eruptive, the cooled and crystallized magmas which have been forced upward from underlying sources into the areas above heated, pasty reservoirs, or pushed out and injected as dikes, apophyses or arms into cracks or openings of the invaded beds. Granites appear in the rocks of Manhattan and The Bronx and are referred to igneous protrusions, though it is not inconceivable that minor veins and tracks of so-called pegmatized gneiss have resulted from a refusion of the metamorphic gneiss in the development of heat from frictional movement, under stress and plication, upheaval, distortion, or compression, and through the action of included water. In this way the gneiss became saturated with granitic lenses, fillings and streaks, drawn out in parallelism wth the enclosing gneissoid envelopes, upon the folding or elevation, under pressure, of the entire complex. Some granite veins suggest segregation or water-filling.

The crystalline rocks of Greater New York have been deeply compressed and their original horizontal extension may have undergone a contraction of more than a mile, which was the result of crustal shortenings over the whole of the earth's sphere. Of course, the effect of such a contraction would be to throw up the more or less horizontal beds into hills or mountains of inclined strata, bringing about at the same time internal mineral changes and structural changes connected with the metamorphism of the beds. Such horizontal contractions have been considerable in the geological history of the earth. De la Beche has shown that contorted and inclined beds would require, if reduced to a level surface, much more room, and that if stretched out into flat sheets they would invade adjoining areas. Professor Heim computed that the Alps, toward the north, have been thus compressed, and the horizontal shrinking of the superficies of the earth at this point has been something like seventy-four miles, or "one-half of the original horizontal extent of the component strata, which have been corrugated

and thrown back upon each other in huge folds, reaching from base to summit of lofty mountains." Such a contraction in the New York area has resulted in the upward projection of high hills, or monticules, which may have attained altitudes of over four thousand feet, and which have disappeared through prolonged weathering, leaving the present inconspicuous relief of the surface. The merely mechanical or local elevation has been accomplished slowly, though even that slowness of ascension probably was associated with periodic movements, and it has been exaggerated or reduced by continental uplifts and depressions. In these hills the stratified beds, or their metamorphic equivalents, have been thrust up on end, or at steep angles; shearing forces have been exerted upon them, and included igneous intrusions, have participated, along with their enclosing schists, in the folding and plication, and there has not been wanting readjustments by faults and dislocations. Fossils within the limits of Greater New York are found, in place, only in the Cretaceous beds of Staten Island, though the drift areas, in which occur transported boulders from fossiliferous horizons in New York State, have furnished an interesting and extended series.

Professor Dana regarded the Westchester County area that included The Bronx as topographically a southern portion of the Green Mountain elevation; that the grade of metamorphism followed the same rule to the north—that is, it is of the greatest intensity to the eastward and to the southward. It is in accordance with this that the least degrees of metamorphism are found in the limestone and associated schists of the vicinity of Peekskill, in the northwest corner, while along the central and eastern portions, and in the western also, south of the Croton, the crystallization is commonly very coarse; that the limestones have the same kind of associated rocks—that is, of mica, schists and gneisses—as the eastern and more metamorphic portions of the region in Connecticut; that the limestones have a like paucity in disseminated minerals and similar occurring species with those of Connecticut; and that the ordinary normal trend of the rocks is very nearly the average trend of the beds of limestone and associated rocks in the Green Mountain system. Professor Dana's conclusions are to the effect that the limestone of Westchester County and New York Island and the comformably associated metamorphic rocks are probably of Lower Silurian age.

The soils of the area are made up of the abrasions and disintegration of the gneiss, feldspar and limestone rocks, with considerable districts largely composed of sand and more limited areas of clay. As a whole the soil may be called a light loam, such as is generally favorable to the growth of cereals. The valleys have the addition of vegetable matter and are productive of the rich natural grasses which abound here. The

hillsides have suffered from washing by heavy rains, but yield abundant crops to good cultivation. About the hill tops and along the summits of the ridges the rocks generally crop out, so that these localities are mostly left to be covered with forest growths, adding greatly to the beauty of the scenery. In some places there are peat swamps where ancient lakes have been filled with the accumulation of vegetable matter and the growth of sphagnum moss. This peat, when pressed and dried, makes excellent fuel. The differences in elevation and exposure, together with the variety of soils, cause a remarkably large flora. Most of the boulders deposited by glacial action are of granite and have been brought from Massachusetts and New Hampshire. Some are of conglomerate, from across the Hudson River, and others have great numbers of shell fossils.

CHAPTER II

THE EARLIEST RECORD OF INHABITANTS

The earliest history of The Bronx is also the earliest history of New York and the area surrounding it. The land had not yet taken form in the European imagination. Its contact with Europe began in the first spectacle it presented to the first European visitor roaming along its coast. The beginning of the idea of America in the European mind began with the perception of that coast and the imagination of its hinterland. Knowledge of the country grew as the first settlers on Manhattan ventured inland and became familiar with the topography that rose westward and northward from the sea. As their knowledge of the region grew its history came into being. America was something to be learned and studied before it became exploited and was able to serve as a home. The early knowledge was a vague thing, without detail, without distinct feature, without marked character. Even when New Amsterdam was a community in being there was still no Bronx, no Westchester, no clear hinterland. The situation was there in its primeval vesture. Gradually it became marked ground as navigators bent their eye on the coast as they passed through the Sound. It was seen to be favorable for settlement, sheltered, proximate to New Amsterdam, the river valleys rich in promising loam, the trees, the flowers, the verdure, pleasing to the eye. It was easy to imagine a growing hamlet thriving in peace in the clearings of the forest near the quiet waters; and so in time settlers moved northward over the Harlem or came down from Connecticut or Rhode Island.

The Borough and its Ancient Territory—Let us first, however, get quite clear concerning the area we are dealing with, for The Bronx as it is at present constituted is more recent in its formation than the early history to which we are here referring. At present the city of New York is divided for administrative purposes into five boroughs: Manhattan, the original city of New York upon the island of Manhattan; Brooklyn, the old city of that name in the county of Kings; Queens, in the county of the same name, adjoining Brooklyn; Richmond or Staten Island; and The Bronx, the borough lying north of the Harlem River. On November 1, 1863, the county of Westchester was formed. Its western boundary was the Hudson River; its northern, Dutchess (now Putnam) County; its eastern, the Connecticut Colony and Long Island Sound; its southern, the East and Harlem rivers

and Spuyten Duyvil Creek. The Borough of The Bronx was included within the county of Westchester until 1874 for the western part of the borough, and until 1895 for the eastern part. Up to those dates the history of The Bronx is the history of the county of which it formed a part. The county also included the islands contiguous to its shores. By the act of the State Legislature, March 7, 1788, all the counties were divided into townships. There were only twenty-one of these in Westchester County, following very closely the lines of the ancient manors and patents. What is now The Bronx was formerly included within the towns of Yonkers, Morrisania, Eastchester, Pelham, and Westchester.

The township of Yonkers was a part of the Philipseburgh Manor, which was sequestrated by the State in 1779, on account of the disloyalty of its owner, Colonel Frederick Philipse. The part of the township within the borough was known as Lower Yonkers; and it remained a part of the original township until June 1, 1872, when the city of Yonkers was incorporated. At the same time the portion of the township lying south of a line drawn from the northwest corner of the land belonging to the Sisters of Charity, known as St. Vincent de Paul, due east to the Bronx River, was set off as a new township under the name of Kingsbridge. It remained a part of the Yonkers township until December 16th of the same year, when the selection of town officers was perfected. Its northern boundary was the line given above, from the Hudson River to the Bronx; its southern, the northern line of the ancient manor of Fordham, from the Harlem River at East 230th Street to a point on the Bronx River between First and Second avenues, Williamsbridge, and Spuyten Duyvil Creek; its western, the Hudson River. Morrisania was the most sparsely settled section of the county, and the reason for its erection into a township is not very clear. The predominant influence may have been the work of its owner, Lewis Morris, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. The new constitutional government had gone into effect in New York in 1789, but the site of the national capital remained a topic of discussion. Morris considered his manor to be an ideal site for such a capital; apparently the idea that New York would grow and swallow it up as a mere parish did not occur to him or to anyone else at the time. On October 1, 1790, the Congress in session at New York was to determine the location of the new capital, and Morris memorialized it in favor of Morrisania.

In the opinion of Morris the manor of which he was the owner was more advantageously situated for their (the members of Congress) residence than any other place that had hitherto been proposed to them, and much better accommodated with the necessary requisites of convenience of access, health and security. He claimed "that vessels from

the four Eastern States may arrive at Morrisania through the Sound, in the course of a few hours, and that ships from the Carolinas and Georgia may perform voyages to Morrisania with much more safety and despatch than they can to the ports of Philadelphia and Annapolis, not being incommoded with tedious passages of two hundred miles each up bays and rivers which often consume a fortnight or three weeks—passages rendered hazardous by rocks and shoals, and annually obstructed by ice." Others of the claims of Morris were: "That Morrisania is so situated that vessels may arrive from, or proceed to sea, sometimes in six hours . . . and that this passage, from the quantity and saltness of the water, has never been totally impeded by ice;" "that Morrisania has always been noted for this particular (health and salubrity), that the fever and ague is unknown, and that persons from other places, emaciated by sickness and disease, there shortly recover and are speedily reinforced in health and vigor;" "that Morrisania is perfectly secure from any dangers either from foreign invasion or internal insurrection;" "that Morrisania being distant only twenty miles from the State of Connecticut, and eight miles from the city of New York, that it therefore can be amply protected by the hardy sons of New England on the one side, and the inhabitants of the populous city of New York on the other; that as the chief defence of this country in future must be by its militia . . . there are more fighting men within a sweep of thirty miles around Morrisania than perhaps within the same distance around any other place in America as there are many populous places which contain large proportions of inhabitants who are principled by religion against bearing arms, and other places which contain negro inhabitants who not only do not fight themselves, but by keeping their masters at home, prevent them from fighting also." The ambition of Morris to have his manor erected into the national capital was not fulfilled and a new city arose on the banks of the Potomac, while by act of the Legislature on February 2, 1791, Morrisania ceased to be a separate township. Previous to 1848 there were a few settlers; but around this period the Irish and the German immigration figures became large and not a few of the new settlers made their home on the banks of the Harlem.

Bounds of Townships—The bounds of the township at both creations, that of 1788 and that of 1855, were the same as those of the ancient manor. The northerly line, which was the southerly line of Fordham Manor, began at Harlem River immediately south of the present High Bridge, and extended east to Union Avenue between East 170th and 171st streets. Its eastern boundary was practically Union Avenue to Bungay Creek, which it followed to the East River. Its other

boundaries were the East River, Bronx Kills, and Harlem River. The township of Eastchester, created in 1788, had for its western boundary the Bronx River; on the north, Scarsdale; on the east, Hutchinson's River; on the south, Black Dog Brook and a line drawn from the head of the brook on the line of 229th Street to the Bronx River. When the city of Mount Vernon was incorporated in 1892, the township of Eastchester was divided into two parts, entirely separated from each other by the newly formed, intervening city. The southern piece was the smaller; and when the question of annexation was submitted to the people in 1894, the inhabitants voted to be taken into the city of New York. Pelham township was what remained of Pelham Manor. It was triangular in form, New Rochelle being its base or northerly line, and the two sides being the Sound and Hutchinson's River. It also included Hunter, Twin, Hart, High, and City islands. The portion taken for the city of New York is almost entirely within Pelham Bay Park. The part annexed to New York was the ancient Anne Hoeck, or Pell's Neck, and Rodman's Neck, as well as the islands referred to. The township of Westchester, created in 1788, included all the rest of the land now within the limits of the borough; the ancient manor of Fordham, the West Farms tract, and all the land between the Hutchinson River, the Bronx River, and the Sound, with a northerly boundary at the Eastchester line from Black Dog Brook to the Bronx River. This included about one half the borough. The town was further increased by the accession of Morrisania, February 22, 1791. It remained intact until May 13, 1846, when the township of West Farms was formed out of its territory. West Farms, created in 1846, comprised all the land west of the Bronx River, as far as the Harlem River, lying south of Yonkers, until December 7, 1855, when the township of Morrisania was once more formed from its territory. It thus included the manors of Morrisania and Fordham and the West Farms patent of 1663.

The annexation of a part of Westchester County to the city of New York was a question that arose long before any formal action was taken by the authorities. As early as 1864, it was proposed to unite the townships of Morrisania and West Farms under a special city charter; but the objections of the inhabitants of West Farms defeated the project. In 1869, one of the Tweed members of the Legislature from Mount Vernon proposed the annexation of a large part of the county to the city; but as the action was taken without any reference to the wishes of the inhabitants or their immediate representative, Senator Cauldwell, he arose in the Legislature and announced that in a few days he would introduce a bill "to annex the city of New York to Morrisania"—a piece of sarcasm that had in it an echo of the high hopes formed for Morrisania in an earlier day. Later on the senator was particularly energetic

in advocating annexation and bringing it about. In the autumn of 1872 the people of West Farms and Morrisania came together and in the year that followed the bill referring the annexation to the people was enacted. Owing to disputes among the officials the bill provided that the streets should be placed under the Park Department, a scheme that worked more harm than good to the newly annexed district until the streets were put under a special Department of Street Improvements of the Twenty-third and Twenty-fourth wards. On January 1, 1874, the townships of Kingsbridge, West Farms, and Morrisania became a part of the city of New York, and were formed into the Twenty-third and Twenty-fourth wards. The new wards were also spoken of as the Annexed District; they constitute that part of the borough lying west of the Bronx River and comprise twelve thousand three hundred and seventeen acres.

At the election of November 6, 1894, the question of the limit and area of the Great New York then contemplated was submitted to the inhabitants of the localities affected, including Westchester, Eastchester, Pelham, and the city of Mount Vernon. The result of the referendum showed good majorities for annexation in Eastchester and Pelham, while Mount Vernon and Westchester voted against annexation, the former by a large majority, and the latter by a majority of one. The adverse majority in Westchester was so small that it was ignored by the annexationists; and on July 1, 1895, the whole section east of the Bronx River became a part of the city of New York, forming part of the Twenty-fourth ward. It comprises nearly fourteen thousand acres, making the total area taken from Westchester County by the annexations twenty-six thousand and seventeen acres, or a little over thirty-nine square miles.

Greater New York—On January 1, 1898, the charter of the Greater New York went into effect, and the whole annexed section north of the Harlem River became officially known as the Borough of The Bronx—taking its name from the river that ran through it. The charter arranged that in educational and some other official matters it should act in common with the Borough of Manhattan. On January 1, 1902, the revised charter of the Greater New York went into effect. It gave a certain amount of autonomy to the different boroughs, especially in the matter of local improvements, though many acts of the local boards are subject to the Board of Aldermen or Board of Estimate and Apportionment, or both, when the outlay authorized by the local board exceeds two thousand dollars. The local boards of The Bronx are composed of the borough president and the aldermen of the local improvement districts. There are four such districts in the borough: The

Twenty-second, or Morrisania; the Twenty-third, or Chester; the Twenty-fourth, or Crotona; and the Twenty-fifth, or Van Cortlandt. When the two annexations took place the sections ceased to be parts of Westchester County and became parts of New York County. In the matter of congressional, senate, assembly, and judicial representation, however, portions of the borough were at first attached to Westchester County; though there is now separation. The borough constitutes the eighteenth congressional district. There are eight aldermanic districts, and four local school districts, each having its own board. The borough is allowed two municipal courts where civil cases may be tried in which the value in controversy does not exceed two hundred and fifty dollars. There are also two police magistrate's courts for the settlement of minor cases of crimes and misdemeanors and for preliminary hearings in cases of felony. For police protection the borough is divided into nine precincts. The great increase in the population and the consequent erection of buildings to accommodate the inhabitants, with the transfers of property and other matters of record in relation to real estate, became so great in volume that, on April 28, 1903, a committee was appointed by the North Side Board of Trade to bring before the State Legislature the formation of a new county to be called Bronx County. In January following, a bill to form such a county was introduced, but it failed to pass. It was introduced in every subsequent Legislature, but it was defeated. Extraordinary meetings and agitations took place in the autumn of 1911, with the result that an act passed by the Legislature of 1912 authorized the formation of Bronx County, the matter to be decided by a referendum to the voters of the borough. The question: "Shall the territory within The Borough of The Bronx be erected into the County of Bronx?" was accordingly submitted to the voters at the general election in November, 1912, and a majority of the votes cast were in favor of the creation of the county. The constitutionality of the act was questioned on the grounds that the Legislature had no power to submit the question to the voters, since New York State, being a representative democracy, the people of the State act through their representative in the Legislature; and secondly, that the question should have been submitted to the voters of the entire County of New York, instead of only to the voters of The Borough of The Bronx. The act was declared unconstitutional by the Appellate Divisions of the Supreme Court of the State of New York, but the decision was reversed, on March 21, 1913, by the Court of Appeals. In an administrative way the creation of the County of Bronx meant that The Bronx would have its own courts, its own offices for recording deeds, mortgages, and other papers affecting real and personal property, its own offices where wills of its residents could be probated, and its own Sheriff's and County Clerk's offices.

From all this the reader will gain an idea of the territory we are dealing with, its background, the alteration of boundary, its alternate shrinking and expansion, its general association with the larger contiguous territory in which for our purpose it may be regarded as the core. It will thus be plain that the history of New York and the history of Westchester County have a very great deal in common with the history of The Bronx.

Aboriginal Inhabitants—And now with regard to the inhabitants of the region before it became settled by the white man. The European discoverers of North America, writes James Wood, found the continent peopled with millions of human beings, of types analogous to those of the Old World, and with characteristics almost equally varied. In stature they covered a whole range, from the dwarf-like denizens of the far north to the vigorous inhabitants of other sections, whose height averaged in the men fully six feet. In activity and courage they excited the admiration of their discoverers. Their color was unique and was imagined to resemble that of copper; but further investigation showed that this color varied greatly. Some of the natives were found to be nearly as dark as negroes, while in other sections they were almost as fair as Caucasians. They spoke many different languages, which showed striking analogies in their grammatical construction, with equally striking disparity in their vocabulary. The goal sought by Columbus and the other European navigators who first came in contact with the aborigines of America was, of course, India, and imagining that the territory of the Atlantic coast constituted the outlying provinces of Asia and India they called the inhabitants of the new land Indians.

Various conjectures have been made as to the length of time during which man has occupied the American continent and the geologists and evolutionists are still busy with the query. Apart from the length of time required for the production of new languages, and from the considerations of the ethnologists, there are facts connected with human existence on this continent that indicate a period of almost inconceivable antiquity. Of the animals found in the New World none were identical with those known in the Old, and in the vegetable kingdom the same rule appeared to hold. Maize and tobacco were cultivated in every portion of the country where the climate suited their requirements, while cotton was grown in a section necessarily more limited in area. We may reasonably suppose that man existed here for a long time before he discovered the fitness of maize for food and for a much longer period before he began its cultivation; and then it must have required centuries to introduce it to general cultivation over nearly a hundred degrees of latitude in the two continents. It is well known that

plants change their characters very slowly; but maize, tobacco and cotton had so long been subjected to the transforming influences of cultivation as to have lost all resemblance to their original forms, so that they could no longer be identified with the wild species. The force of this consideration is heightened when we remember that, in this transformation, these plants became entirely dependent upon cultivation for their existence. In some portions of the continent the great length of time that man has existed here is shown moreover in the remains of artificial structures still preserved; though these in the main have been found in localities far removed from the territory with which we are dealing.

Closely connected with the question of the duration of human existence on the continent is of course the question of the quarter from which the first inhabitants came. The attempts to designate particular nations as the original settlers of the American continent have failed generally to produce any conviction. However, writes Wood:

When we look at the conditions on either side of the continent we cannot suppose that it was at all impossible for men, at an indefinitely remote period, to have found their way hither. The climatic changes of past periods at some time may have made the route by Behring's Straits entirely practicable. The route by the Aleutian Islands is not difficult now to canoe navigators. The Pacific currents frequently cast the wrecks of Japanese vessels upon our northwestern shores. The islands of the South Pacific afforded a probable way of communication, and, it is believed that many have disappeared, comparatively recently, beneath the surface. On the Atlantic side the difficulties were by no means insurmountable, even if we ignore "the lost Atlantis." The trade winds and equatorial currents carried Cabral and his Portuguese fleet, bound round the Cape of Good Hope, to the American shores, and led to the accidental discovery of Brazil. On his second voyage Columbus found, in a house on the island of Guadaloupe, the stern-post of a European vessel. In various periods of the past the same forces may have brought men to our shores. It is probable that America was peopled from various sources and at widely separated periods. These must have been very remote to afford time for the production of the conditions existing here. The aborigines of Westchester County belonged to the great family of Indians called the Algonquin Lenape. Their connection with the mound-builders of the Mississippi valley, with the Aztecs of Mexico, or with the builders of the wonderful structures found in Central America, if any ever existed, must have been extremely remote. Their traditions referred in a very vague way to long journeys from the northwest, and great suffering from cold on their way hither, and of contests with people who occupied the country before them. Of their own history they were lamentably ignorant. Their computation of time by moons and revolving cycles led all investigations into inextricable confusion. Any event beyond an individual's recollection floated vaguely in the boundless past. No records of any kind were made. For these reasons the Europeans were able to obtain from this people very little information of themselves or their fathers. They existed here for unnumbered centuries, and then passed away, leaving behind them no sign to mark their occupation of the country, save a few simple implements of stone, and no structure of any kind memorializes their power or attests their strength or

skill. We are thus singularly destitute of nearly all means for acquiring actual knowledge of this people's history.

The Algonquin tribes occupied nearly the whole Atlantic seaboard, and their language necessarily was widely diffused. It has been found more facile in dialects than any other aboriginal speech. It was strangely agglutinative, and gave expression to thought by stringing words together into an extended compound. It was the mother tongue of those who greeted Raleigh's colonists on the Roanoke, of those who boarded the "Half-Moon" on the Hudson, and of those who welcomed and fed the Pilgrims at Plymouth. It was heard from the land of the Esquimo to the Savannah River and from the Bay of Gaspé to the Mississippi.

The Mohegans were a division of the Algonquins. They occupied the country along the left bank of the Hudson River, called Mahhicannittuk, and eastward to the Connecticut, and from Long Island Sound northward to the mouth of the Mohawk, and perhaps to Lake Champlain. Their country was called Laaphawachking. North and west of the Mohegans were the powerful and warlike Iroquois, their immediate neighbors being the Horicans and Mohawks. Across the Hudson, below the Catskills, were tribes belonging to the Delaware nation, and east of the Connecticut were the Pequots. Long Island was occupied by Mohegan tribes. It has been stated that at the time of the discovery the Mohegans were under military subjection to the Iroquois, and are said to have been compelled to pay an annual tribute to them. However, it has been declared that this has not been substantiated by investigation, for there has been found no direct reference to it in any of the treaties made by these tribes with the whites, nor was such a thing ever alluded to in the protracted negotiations between them. The subdivisions of the tribe were very numerous. They had advantages for local government and the preservation of order. The form of government was very simple. Each local tribe had its ruler, called the sachem. He was also their representative in the general councils, which were composed of the representatives of the smaller tribes of the nation. They were presided over by the national grand sachem, who occupied the position of a sovereign. These councils assembled only in cases requiring concerted action, as in a general war. In all other matters the local tribes were independent and declared war for themselves, or made peace without consulting their brother tribes. The national obligation was imperative, and treason to the decision of the council was punished with death. Each nation had its emblem, or totem, which served the purpose of the flag of a civilized nation. These were used in times of war, and were drawn upon trees and rocks to indicate that the tribes had taken up the hatchet and had gone on the warpath. The Mohegan totem was a wolf, and in declar-

ing war the animal was represented with its dexter paw raised in a threatening manner. The name "Mohegan" meant "Enchanted Wolf." The military force of the nation had regular forms of organization and discipline. The companies from the local tribes had their commanders, who were selected for their prowess and their achievement in arms. The united forces were commanded by chiefs who had obtained military distinction, and these stood in rank according to their services and their reputation for bravery, prudence, cunning, and good fortune. There was but little need for civil government, as their chief possessions were held in common, and where personal property existed, the owner's rights were recognized.

These local tribes were probably communities of blood relations who readily recognized the patriarchal authority of their sachem and who held their lands in common. The sachems received their support by the free contributions of the community. The ownership of land depended upon conceded original occupation or upon conquest. If obtained by conquest all original rights became vested in the conquerors, and if it was reconquered, these returned to the original owner. The aborigines had but little idea of title to land. They valued only its occupation and use. The game that filled the forests and the fish that swarmed in the waters gave a value that they well appreciated, and they also prized their cultivable tracts. There is much uncertainty regarding the subdivisions of the tribes in any given district, and if the question of their location were left to the statements and maps of the early European settlers, it might well be abandoned as hopeless. However, the title-deeds given to the settlers supply considerable information, which though not perfect, locates the sub-tribes with tolerable accuracy. Yet the boundaries of such tracts as were sold by the aborigines were designated with much uncertainty by the Indian names of rivers, brooks and rivulets, hills, ponds, and meadows, which are sometimes difficult to locate. Treaties made between the settlers and the Indians throw a supplementary light on the aborigines. The island upon which New York has been built was occupied by the Manhattans. Their territory extended along the Mahicanituk, or Hudson River, northward to the Nepperhan, or Saw Mill River, and eastward to the Aquahung, or Bronx River. Between the Nepperhan and the Pocantico were the Weckquaesgeeks. The Sint Sinks occupied the land between the Pocantico and the Kitchawan, or Croton River. North of the Croton were the Kitchawans, whose lands extended to Anthony's Nose and the Highlands, and eastward across the northern portion of Westchester County. East of the Manhattans, occupying the territory along the Sound, were the Siwanoys, who also occupied the southwestern portion of Connecticut. North of the Siwanoys were the Tankitekes, occupying the cen-

tral and eastern portions of the county. The western end of Long Island was occupied by the Canarsees. The Rockaways, Merricks, Marsapequas, Matinecocks, Corchangs, Manhassets, Secatogues, Patchogues, Shiannecocks and Montauks extended eastward, in the order named. West of the Hudson were the Navesinks, Raritans, Hackinsacks, Tappans, and Haverstraws. Above the Highlands, upon the eastern side of the river, were the Nochpeens and the Wappingers. Eastward, in Connecticut, was the large chieftaincy of the Sequins. That the Indians of Westchester were very numerous is proved by the fact that over fifteen hundred warriors were at one time in arms against the whites, and also by the number of their large villages. These villages were located where there were special advantages for fishing, or where a light and easily worked soil was favorable for cultivation. The Manhattans had three villages upon Manhattan Island. Their largest village in this county was Nappeckamak, which occupied the site of the present city of Yonkers. At the southern end of the original township of Yonkers, overlooking the Hudson River, and Spuyten Duyvil Creek, they had a fortress which they called Nipinichsen. The Weckquaesgeeks had their principal village at the mouth of Wysquaqua, where the village of Dobbs Ferry now stands. It was called by the tribal name. Until recently its site was designated by extensive shell-beds. They had another village at the mouth of the Pocantico, on the site now occupied by Tarrytown. This village was called Alipconck. They had another village by the Neperhan, west of White Plains. The Sint Sinks had a village called Ossing-sing, where The Kill empties into the Hudson at Sing Sing. They had a smaller village at the mouth of the Kitchawan, or Croton River. The Kitchawans had a large village upon Van Cortlandt's Neck, connecting Croton Point with the mainland. They had there the strongest fortress of any in the country. Like Nipinichsen, it was a heavily palisaded stockade. They had another village upon Verplanck's Point and a larger one called Sackhoes, where Peekskill now stands. The Siwanoys were a numerous tribe. They had a village upon Pelham Neck, in the present town of Pelham; another on Davenport's Neck, in New Rochelle; and their largest settlement upon the shores of Rye Pond, in the present town of Harrison. There was a very extensive burial ground. There was also a settlement near Rye Beach. They had another village in the southern part of the town of Westchester, near Bear Swamp. They had an important castle upon what is known as Castle Hill, west of the Westchester Creek. The Tankitekes had a village near Wampus Lake, in the town of North Castle, where the Sachem Wampus resided. They also had a village near Pleasantville, in the town of Mount Pleasant. There was a settlement by the Mehanas River, near the present village of Bedford. There was also a village

where the Cross River, the Indian name of which was Peppensghek, unites with the Croton, or Kitchawan, near the site of Katonah. There are still visible the remains of extensive stone fishweirs, in the bed of the Croton River, that were built by the Indians. Besides the villages named there were doubtless many more concerning which no direct information has come down to us.

Indian Population and Food Supply—That the Indians occupied the territory of which The Bronx may be regarded as the core in great numbers is rendered probable by the character of the country and its surroundings. The whole country is remarkably well watered and its soil produced an abundance of rich natural grasses. These conditions caused an abundance of game. The lands bordering the Beaver Dam River were called "the deer's delight." The numerous lakes and streams throughout Westchester County were well stocked with fish. These were taken with lines and nets, the cordage of which was made of twisted fibres of the dogbane and the sinews of the deer. Hooks were fashioned of the sharpened bones of fishes and birds. Weirs, fish-traps and spears were also employed. Deer and other game were taken by other means besides hunting with the bow and arrow. The English settlers found in good preservation, in the town of Poundridge, an extensive trap which they called a pound, and from which the township had its name. It was situated at the south end of the ridge, not far from the present village, and enclosed the spring of water which still flows there. It was built of logs held together by what the English called saddlestones, was twelve or fourteen feet high and enclosed an acre or more of ground. From its narrow entrance there extended palisaded wings in each direction, so as to cross the valley and run up the adjacent hill sides. The valleys from the south and southwest come together again by the subsidence of the intervening ridges. The Indians in considerable numbers would start in the early morning many miles away, and would "beat the bush," with hideous yells, working in the direction of the trap, while parties ran along the ridges on the right and left to prevent lateral escapes, and thus they drove before them the game of every description until they came to the wings of the trap, which led everything into the enclosure. Then the entrance was closed and all secured. In this way great numbers of deer and other game were taken.

Great as were the food supplies obtained from the forests and streams they were greatly increased by those from the surrounding waters. The Hudson River and the Sound make the situation of the contiguous mainland a remarkable one. These waters teemed with fish. In seasons of abundance, like the running of the shad in the springtime, quan-

tities of fish were dried and smoked, and thus preserved for future use. Shell-fish were extensively used. Along the Sound the numerous shell-heaps attested the Indians' appreciation of the oyster. These shell-heaps resemble those of European countries, which, with the kitchen middens, have received so much attention from archæologists. So extensive were these shell-heaps on City Island, now part of The Bronx Borough, that they gave to the surrounding waters the name of the "great bay of the island of shells." Similar heaps were found upon Berrien's Neck, in the township of Yonkers, and at the various village sites along the Hudson. The largest of these were upon the Croton Point, where until a few years ago considerable areas were still covered with them to the depth of two or three feet. Before the country was settled by the whites and the forests were cleared away, a much greater percentage of the rainfall evaporated from the surface of the land and less flowed into the streams. On this account the waters of the Hudson were much more salt than now, and more favorable to the oyster's development. To preserve the important oyster-beds of the wide lower portion of the river the fort upon Van Cortlandt's Neck was erected. It is an interesting fact that where the oyster shells have remained undisturbed they are nearly all found whole, showing that the Indians opened the oysters without breaking them. It was probably accomplished by exposure to the sun. None of them have been exposed to fire. A remarkable number and variety of stone implements have been found here, and a place of burial has been also discovered.

However, these early inhabitants of the territory of The Bronx and the adjacent region did not depend upon the food derived from the chase and taken from the waters. They cultivated the land much more extensively than is generally supposed. The European navigators of the Hudson were impressed by the extent of the fields of maize. Suitable lands along the Sound were similarly used, and throughout the interior the early white settlers found their difficulties greatly lessened by the extent of the lands already cleared and prepared for their immediate use. The Red Man's success in the cultivation of land was remarkable when we consider the disadvantages under which he labored. It must be remembered that he had taught no animal to assist him in his labor. He had no flock or herd, nor any kind of poultry. His dog was a worthless creature, resembling a cross between the fox and the wolf, and was only the lazy sharer of his cabin or the playmate of his children, and was not trained to usefulness in the chase. He had no iron or any other metal, except rare specimens of native copper, brought from the shores of Lake Superior and worn as ornaments, or perhaps fashioned into highly prized spear-heads. In the present iron-age, when every required tool is ready-fashioned to our hand, it is difficult for us to

imagine such a situation. How could the Red Man work the soil? How attack a tree? How obtain an implement of any description? In his various operations he had three agents—stone, wood, and fire. He sometimes employed the first in the cultivation of his crops, but more often his only implement was a poor hoe made from the shell of the clam or the shoulder blade of the deer.

On this account he worked no soil but those that were light and easily stirred. Such soils were quickly exhausted and failed to yield proper returns for the labor expended. The Red Man's only means of restoring fertility was the use of fish as manure. Menhaden were his chief reliance for this purpose, and on this account the cornfields were most extensive near the shore. His most important crop was maize, and upon this he relied, very largely, for his subsistence in winter. It was roasted while young, and when matured and dry, was ground into meal by stone pestles and mortars, and when this was moistened with water and baked upon heated stones the product was called nookhik, from which have come nocake and hoe-cake. The grain was preserved after harvest by being buried in the dryest places under a thatch of coarse grass and boughs. Next in importance to maize was the sieva bean. It was extensively raised and boiled alone or with the green corn. The latter dish was called succotash. The boiling was accomplished in bowls of steatite, or in vessels made of rude pottery· In addition to these, pumpkins were grown. These were readily baked before the fire. Wild fruits and nuts, in their seasons, also contributed to the support and enjoyment of the Red Man. Tobacco was also grown here. With their requirements for food thus met, the Indians here were not destitute of the means of comfortable clothing. The country abounded with fur-bearing animals. Beavers were common. The name of Beaver Meadows, scattered throughout the territory, and that of the Beaver Dam River attest this. Van der Donck, the patroon of Yonkers, wrote, in 1656, that eighty thousands of these were annually killed in this quarter of the country. In November, 1624, among the cargo of the first laden vessel from New to Old Amsterdam were 7,246 beaver skins, 675 skins of otters, forty-eight of mink, thirty-six wild cat and various other sorts. The tribes were in the habit of clothing themselves with otter-skins, the fur inside, the smooth side without; which, however, they painted so beautifully that at a distance is resembled lace. When they brought their commodities to the traders and found they were desirous to buy them, they made so little matter of it that they ripped up the skins they were clothed with and sold them also, returning naked to their homes. Their most elegant garments were mantles made of feathers, overlapping each other, as upon the birds themselves. Sometimes these were artistic

productions of real beauty. They made leggins and moccasins of deer-skins. The men always went bareheaded, and, in the summer, wore nothing except a garment about the loins, called by the white settlers, "Indian breeches." The women dressed their glossy hair in a thick heavy plait. Their dress usually consisted of two garments—a leather shirt and a skirt of the same material fastened round the waist, with a belt and reaching below the knees. From these various considerations it is plain that a large population could subsist in comparative comfort in this section. The Indian houses were made by planting poles in the ground and binding them together at the top. These were covered with bark or thatched with reeds and rushes, so as to be impervious to rain. Their beds were made of evergreen boughs, covered with skins and furs. Their furniture was extremely simple. Besides the pots for cooking referred to, they had wooden bowls for holding their food and wooden spoons for handling it. Mats made of rushes sometimes covered the floors of their huts. They had buckets ingeniously made out of birch-bark, so as to be water-tight, and baskets of various sizes, made of splints, rushes or grass. Their villages were composed of houses closely huddled together about a central space, which was used for the transaction of public business, for ceremonies and amusements. Besides the manufactures already named there were others that attested the Indian's skill. He made boats of two kinds. One consisted of a light, wooden frame, covered with birch-bark, skilfully and tastefully fastened at the seams; this boat was peculiarly valuable on long journeys as its lightness allowed it to be easily carried from the waters of one stream to those of another. The other boat was a much heavier affair, fashioned from the trunk of a tree. The wood was charred by heated stones and then scraped away with stone gouges. These boats were sometimes thirty or more feet in length, and were capable of carrying a considerable number of passengers. In some of the sales of land to the white settlers along the Sound the Indians reserved the white wood trees, "suitable for making canoes of."

Indian Implements and Ornaments—In perhaps nothing was the Indian's skill more strikingly shown than in his manufacture of implements of stone. These were mortars and pestles, axes, hatchets, adzes, gouges, chisels, cutting tools, skinning tools, perforators, arrow and spear heads, scrapers, mauls, hammer stones, sinkers, pendants, pierced tablets, polishers, pipes and ceremonial stones. Specimens of all these have been found in Westchester County. The mortars were usually bowl-like depressions worn into some rock beside the village site, where the women could conveniently resort to grind the corn. Sometimes they were made in portable stones. The pestles were from

two to three inches in diameter and from six to twenty inches in length, and generally of fine sandstone, greenstone, or hornblende. Axes were made of varieties of greenstone, syenite, granite, porphyry and sandstone. They may be described as wedges, encircled by a groove near the heavy end. They varied in weight from half a pound to six or eight pounds. The groove was made for securely fastening the handle. This was bound with pieces of raw hide, or sometimes a young tree was cleft while yet growing, and the axe, being inserted, was left in the proper position until the growth had gradually formed about it. Adzes, gouges and chisels were made of tough greenstone and hornblende, and were used in the manufacture of their canoes. The cutting tools were leaf-shaped implements made of flint or jasper, finely chipped to an edge, which combined in its cutting the principles of the saw and the knife. There were also flakes of obsidian that had sharp cutting edges. Skinning tools, or celts, were wedge-shaped implements made of many kinds of stone, worked to a fine edge at one end, and generally polished. Perforators were delicately wrought of flint or jasper. Scrapers were small implements of flint used in dressing skins. Arrows and spearheads form the best known class of Indian implements and have been found in The Bronx and its neighborhood in great numbers. They were made of flint, jasper, chert, hornstone, quartz, and a variety of other stones. The spear heads were from two to eight and ten inches in length, while the arrow points were smaller and lighter, and many specimens of each were beautifully wrought. Occasionally throughout the county quantities of flint chips are found on some Indian village site, where the ancient arrow maker had his workshop. Mauls and hammer stones were made of several varieties of tough stones. The former were grooved for hafting and the latter were circular, or elliptical, two and a half inches in diameter, or three in greatest length, and an inch in thickness, with slight depressions worked at the middle of the sides for the thumb and finger. They usually show evidences of wear at the circumference or ends. Large numbers of these have been found along the Hudson. Sinkers were used in weighting the nets, and were simple flat stones, notched at the opposite edges. Pendants were pear-shaped, pointed at one end and grooved near the other. Pierced tablets were used in twisting the bow-strings or worn as ornaments. Some remarkable specimens of these, notched as if kept as records, have been found in The Bronx neighborhood. Pipes have not been found in great numbers, but some of the specimens are very interesting. They are made of greenstone, steatite and sometimes were fashioned out of clay. They represent birds or the heads of birds, turtles and various animals, the beaver more frequently than others. Ceremonial stones were the most

finely wrought of all the Indian's stone work. They were carried as evidences of rank, or to excite a superstitious reverence. They were wrought from serpentine, or a fine and beautifully striped slate, and were drilled so that they could be carried upon a rod or handle. This striped slate, so far as is known, was nowhere found nearer than Canada. The few specimens of obsidian found in this neighborhood must have come from the Rocky Mountain region. Three or four spear heads, hammered from native copper, that have been found here must have been brought from the shores of Lake Superior, while the flints and jaspers, from which so many arrow heads were made, must have been brought a considerable distance. These facts tend to show that the Mohegans carried on commerce of exchange with other tribes and thus obtained articles that had been brought from very remote localities. Holes were drilled through stones for ornament or use by a drill of flint, or a reed with water and sand. These were worked by a bow-string. The bow was an important article of the Indian's outfit and was his chief weapon in war and in the chase. It was skilfully fashioned from ash or hickory wood, and was strung with the sinews of the deer. Another important article of manufacture was wampum, which was their medium of exchange, or money. It was made from the shell of the quohog, or hard shell clam. It was cylindrical in form, a quarter of an inch long, and in diameter less than a pipe stem, drilled lengthwise, so as to be strung upon a thread. The beads of a white color rated at half the value of the black or violet, made from the portion where the contracting muscle of the clam is attached to the shell. They were used for ornament as well as for coin, and ten thousand or more were sometimes wrought into the belt of some great chieftain. The district about Byram Lake was called Cohemong, which meant the place where wampum is made. There have been but few unbroken specimens of Indian pottery found in Westchester County, but, numerous fragments, some of considerable size are in existence. They are all quite rude, although some show attempts at ornamentation. On Croton Point, where the clay was favorable for this manufacture, a trench has been discovered containing numerous fragments of earthen vessels, along with charcoal, indicating that here may have been a simple kiln for burning pottery. In the manufacture of all these articles, some of which required a great deal of labor, besides the time necessarily taken in hunting and fishing, and in the cultivation of their crops, the Red Indians must have been pretty thoroughly occupied.

Culture and Home Life—We moderns are apt to regard the general culture of the Indian aborigines with condescending pity, but it is well for us to remember that their barbarism was by no means primordial.

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The Europeans of the present day, as of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, are and were the beneficiaries of Graeco-Roman civilization. Before we start disparaging the culture of the Indians we should remember that any fair comparison would be not between them and us as we are today, but between them and our ancestors before those ancestors came in contact with Roman culture in the early Middle Ages. The difference between, for example, the primitive culture of the American Indian and the primitive culture of the Anglo-Saxon of Jutland would be a very slight difference indeed and it is by no means certain that that difference would be in favor of the Anglo-Saxon. A great civilization has never yet arisen in this world that was not the result of a cross fertilization of some kind.

The home life of the aborigines presented many interesting traits. In their domestic relations the Mohegans were far from being depraved. The lover courted his chosen maiden with presents of ornaments, and won the favor of her parents with gifts of wampum. The consent of the sachem was obtained to their marriage, and he usually joined their hands together and they went away as man and wife. The man had but one wife, unless he was a sachem or occupied an exceptionally high position. The marriage tie was respected and unfaithfulness was looked upon as a crime. In cases of separation the wife was given her share of the goods and departed, being then at liberty to marry again. The Mohegans were never charged with licentiousness as were Indians elsewhere. The women were described as modest and coy in their behavior, and they indignantly repelled all improper advances made by the whites. There is no account of any insulting treatment having been offered to female white captives. Children were treated with kindness, but knew little of parental restraint. The girls were at an early age taught quiet submission to the labors of their position, and the boys were encouraged to independence, and trained to become skilful in the chase and in war. If any deformed children were born they must have died in infancy, for the European visitors stated that none were cross-eyed, blind, crippled, lame or hunch-backed; and that all were well-fashioned, strong in constitution of body, well-proportioned and without blemish. They were kind in their treatment of the sick. They had learned the medicinal virtues of many herbs and of a few other simples. They bound up wounds with mollifying preparations of leaves. They treated fevers by opening the pores of the skin with a vapor bath; but their chief reliance in many diseases was upon supernatural cures. Their medicine man, or pow-wow, excited their superstitious sensibilities and worked upon their imagination, using, wth great solemnity, the ceremonial stones to assist his work. It is not known whether there were formal

ceremonies for burying the dead. The bodies were usually interred in a sitting posture, facing the southwest. With the dead were buried their arms, ornaments, useful utensils, wampum and parched corn for food. Of the religious beliefs of the Mohegans we have very little testimony, and even such as we have cannot be considered reliable. In the compass of human thought there are no ideas requiring so clear expression to be correctly understood as those pertaining to religion. The Indian endeavored to express them in a language imperfectly understood by the whites, and naturally the hearers interpreted these expressions according to their own predilections. It is not strange therefore that very little has come to us that can be implicitly accepted. But all our witnesses unite upon this important point—there was a kind of idolatry practiced among the aborigines here. They believed in one all-wise, all-powerful and beneficent Being, whom they called the Great Spirit, and to whom they offered prayer. They also believed in an evil spirit. The former they knew under the name Cantantowit, and the latter under that of Hobbamocko. The former had sent them their corn and beans. A crow first brought a grain of corn in one ear and a bean in the other, from their heaven, which they called the happy hunting grounds, located in the far southwest. Their highest conceptions of a place of blessing, were associated with the southwest, because the wind from that quarter is soft and balmy and an indication of fair weather. The dead were buried with their faces towards the abode of the blessed. They believed in rewards and punishments hereafter, and they held that after death the souls of the good went to the home of Cantantowit, far away in the good southwest. There they were delivered from every sorrow and preserved from all suffering. The pleasures they there enjoyed were similar in character with the delights they had known here, but their perfection was more complete and their abundance exhaustless. The wicked knocked also at the same door, but were denied admittance, and, being turned away, they wandered forever in a state of horror and restless discontent.

It is difficult to form a correct estimate of the Indian character before that character became changed by contact with the Europeans, writes J. Wood.

History teaches how quickly an inferior race becomes impressed by the traits of a stronger people coming among them. Unfortunately that which is evil is much more quickly imitated than the noble and the good. Before the European became sufficiently acquainted with the Indian to be capable of judging of his character, that character had been changed by contact with the observer himself, so that he saw, in part, the reflection of himself in the subject before him. At best, there was presented only a dissolving view that was transformed before the observer's gaze. The Indian was immediately called a drunkard, and yet he had no beverage

whatever that could intoxicate, and no drug that answered any similar purpose. The first influence of alcohol found it in the cabin of the "Half-Moon." So, also, with other vices. True the Indian was a barbarian. He showed no evidence of having been in any way better or more civilized in the seventeenth century than he had been in the tenth or fifth. With him, might made right. He imposed upon his women and made them his slaves. He had no intellectual exercise, and possessed not even the rudest culture. He was selfish, took pride in the lowest cunning, and had no idea of honor, and, of course, no word for expressing it. And yet, bad as he was, on the one hand, he should not be held responsible for the European vices that were grafted upon him, nor upon the other, should he be judged by standards resulting from centuries of a foreign civilization, or held responsible for the violations of laws of which he had no knowledge.

With the coming of the white man came the fatal sorrows of the Indian. All his world was overthrown. New vices came to his character and new dangers surrounded his home. The one fixed, unchanging and unchangeable factor in his existence, upon which he could implicitly rely, was the land; and now this was snatched from him by devices of which he was totally ignorant. The term "title" conveyed no meaning to his understanding. Acting under the laws of his fathers, and doing only what he had always been taught was right, he found himself accused of gross wrongs under another set of laws of which he had never heard, and whose claim to equity he could not understand. Under the pretense of right he found himself most grievously wronged, and we cannot wonder that, between such opposite rules of action, the collision of principles quickly resulted in collision of arms. The contest was inevitable and whether it was carried on under the name of war or in the more quiet forms of peace it was a contest of races, a contest of civilization against barbarism, and the result was inevitable—the Indian disappeared from the land. When the "Half-Moon" lay at anchor off the village of Nappeckamak, the Indians soon overcame the terror that naturally accompanied so strange an apparition, and, putting off in their canoes, went on board in large numbers. Their curiosity knew no bounds and was only restrained by their dread of the supernatural powers the strangers might possess. By Hudson's own statement, he himself first violated faith with them. He detained two of their number on the vessel, and, although they soon jumped overboard and swam to the shore, his act was nevertheless an outrage upon the universal rules of hospitality. He recorded that when they reached the shore they called to him "in scorn." Hudson ascended the river to Albany, holding communication with the Indians along the way; and so kind was their disposition towards him, that he wrote of them as "the loving people." On his return he came through the Highlands on the first of October, and anchored below the village of Sackhoes, on whose site Peekskill has been built. Here "the people of the mountains" came on board and greatly wondered at the ship and weapons, the color of the men and their dress. Descending the river Hudson found that the Indians of Yonkers were prepared to resent his treatment. The young men whom he had attempted to kidnap came out with their friends in canoes and discharged their arrows at the "Half-Moon," "in recompense whereof six muskets replied and killed two or three of them." The Indians renewed the attack from a point of land, perhaps preceding the vessel to Port Washington, but "a falcon shot killed two of them and the rest fled into the woods; yet they manned off another canoe with five or ten men," through which a falcon shot was sent, killing one of its occupants. Three or four more were killed by the sailors' muskets, and the "Half-Moon" "hurried down into the bay clear of all danger."

Early Writers and the Red Men—In the course of the dozen years or so following the visit of Hudson many voyages were made to the vicinity of what is now New York and The Bronx for the purposes of trade with the Indians, for their furs and to explore the country. The early Dutch historians of the region give a good deal of information concerning the aborigines. Wassenaer, Van der Donck, and others, describe the natives as generally well-limbed, slender round the waist, and broad-shouldered; that they had black hair and eyes, and snow-white teeth, and resembled the Brazilians in color. The dress of the Indian belle was more attractive than any which civilized life had produced. Van der Donck writes: "The women wear a cloth round their bodies, fastened by a girdle which extends below their knees and is as much as a petticoat; but next to the body under this skirt they wear a dressed deer-skin coat, girt round the waist. The lower body of the skirt they ornament with great art, and nestle the same wth stripes which are beautifully decorated with wampum. The wampum with which one of the skirts is decorated is frequently worth from one to three hundred guilders. They bind their hair behind in a club of about a hand long, in the form of a beaver's tail, over which they draw a square cap which is frequently ornamented with wampum. When they desire to be fine they draw a headband around the forehead, which is also ornamented with wampum, etc. This band confines the hair smooth, and is fastened behind, over the club, for a beau's knot. Their head-dress forms a handsome and lively appearance. Around their necks they wear various ornaments, which are also decorated with wampum. Those they esteem as highly as our ladies do their pearl necklaces. They also wear handbands or bracelets, curiously wrought and interwoven with wampum. Their breasts appear about half covered with an elegant wrought dress. They wear beautiful girdles, ornamented with their favorite wampum, and costly ornaments in their ears. Here and there they lay upon their faces black spots of paint. Elk-hide moccasins they wore before the Dutch came, and they, too, were richly ornamented." Not only were they a people of industry, but in morals they were quite the peers of their Dutch neighbors; indeed it has been said that had the Dutch, with all their boasted civilization and Christian principles, been the superiors of the aborigines among whom they lived they would not have been demoralized by their vices. Chastity was an established principle with them. To be unchaste during wedlock was held to be very disgraceful. Foul and improper language was despised by them. Most of the diseases incident to females of the present day were unknown to them. So highly were the women esteemed that the Dutch made wives of them, and refused to leave them for females

of their own country. Instances could be named where the blood of the boasted ancient Knickerbockers was enriched by that of the aborigines of the country."

Another Dutch writer speaks of their food as gross, declaring they drank only water, having no other beverage. They ate the flesh of all sorts of game and fish, and made bread of Indian meal and baked it in hot ashes. They also made a "pap or pridge, called by some sapsis, by others dundare (literally boiled bread), in which they mixed beans of different colors, which they raised." The maize, from which their bread and sapsis were made, was raised by themselves, and was broken up or ground in rude mortars. Beavers' tails, the brains of fish, and their sapsis, ornamented with beans, were their state dishes and highest luxuries. They knew how to preserve meat and fish by smoking, and when hunting or while on a journey carried with them corn roasted whole. The occupations of the men are described by the Dutch historians as hunting, fishing, and war. The women made clothing of skins, prepared food, cultivated the fields of corn, beans and squashes, and made mats. They were workers and faithful helpmeets, and shared in the government of the nation, having rights granted to them which were not conceded to females in civilized countries. The houses which they occupied were, for the most part, built after one plan, differing only in length, according to the number of families embraced in the clan. They were formed by long, slender hickory saplings set in the ground, in a straight line of two rows, as far asunder as they intended the width to be, and continued as far as they intended the length to be. The poles were then bent towards each other at the top in the form of an arch and secured together, giving the appearance of a garden arbor. Split poles were lathed up the sides and roof, and over this was bark, lapped on the ends and edges, which was kept in place by withes to the lathings. A hole was left in the roof for smoke to escape and a single door of entrance was provided. Rarely exceeding twenty feet in width, these houses were sometimes a hundred and eighty yards long. From sixteen to eighteen families occupied one house according to size. A single fire in the centre served them all, although each family occupied at night its particular division and mats. The modern apartment houses running up to scores of stories have been described as little more than the Indian plan of building turned on its end. A number of these houses formed together a village, and these villages were usually situated on the side of a steep, high hill, near a stream of water, or on a level plain on the crown of a hill, and were inclosed with a strong stockade, which was constructed by laying on the ground large logs of wood for a foundation, on both sides of which oak palisades were set in the ground, the upper ends of which crossed each other and were

joined together. The villages so stockaded were called castles and were the winter retreats of families of the same sub-tribe or chieftaincy, the nomadic members of which found the open forests or the seaside more congenial in the summer season, where they made huts for temporary occupancy, caught fish, and cultivated maize and beans and squashes for the winter use.

War and Government—Their weapons of war were the spear, the bow and arrows, the war club and the stone hatchet, and in combat they protected themselves with a square shield made of tough leather. A snake-skin tied around the head, from the centre of which projected the tail of a bear or a wolf, or a feather, indicating the totem or tribe to which they belonged, and a face not recognizable from the variety of colors in which it was painted, was their uniform. Some of the arrows were of elegant construction and tipped with copper, and when shot with power would pass through the body of the deer as certainly as the bullet from the rifle. The more common arrows were tipped with flint, as well as the spears. Armed and painted and on the warpath they were formidable indeed, while their war-cry, "Woach, Woach, Ha, Ha, Hach, Woach," aroused a terror which the first settlers were not ashamed to confess.

> They know how to prepare a coloring, writes Van der Donck, wherein they dye their hair a beautiful scarlet, which excites our astonishment and curiosity. The color is so well fixed than rain, sun and wind will not change it. Although they do not appear to possess any particular art in this matter still such beautiful red was never dyed in the Netherlands with any material known to us. The colored articles have been examined by many of our best dyers, who admire the color and admit that they cannot imitate the same, and remark that a proper knowledge of the art would be of great importance to their profession.

The colors which they made were red, blue, green, brown, white, black, yellow, etc., which, the same writer says, were "made mostly of stone, which they prepared by pounding, rubbing and grinding. To describe perfectly and truly how they prepare all these paints and colors is out of my power."

They were not skilled in the practice of medicines, notwithstanding the general belief on the subject. They knew how to cure wounds and hurts and treated the simple diseases successfully. Their general health was due more to their habits than to a knowledge of remedies. Their principal medical treatment was the sweating bath. These baths were literally earthen ovens into which the patient crept, and around which heated stones were placed to raise the temperature. When the patient had remained under perspiration for a certain time he was taken out and immersed suddenly in cold water, a process which served to cure

or certainly to cause death. The oil which they obtained from beavers was used in many forms and for many purposes. It was a specific for dizziness, for rheumatism, for lameness, for apoplexy, for toothache, for weak eyes, for gout, and for almost all ailments. It was the calomel of Indian allopathic practice, and the Dutch took to it, and attached great value to it. The use of certain herbs and plants, which the Indians employed as remedies, also became familiar to the Dutch, and was transmitted by them to the English, one of which was a cathartic from butternut-bark. Blood letting was unknown to them. Living natural and well ordered lives the scientific treatments of a more advanced civilization was as little required by them as they were unknown to them.

Politically their form of government was an absolute democracy, and unanimity the only recognized expression of the popular will. Law and justice, as civilized nations understand these ideas, were to them unknown, yet both they had in a degree suited to their necessities. Assaults, murders, and other acts regarded as criminal offenses by all nations, were so regarded by them, but the execution of punishment was vested in the injured family, who were constituted judges as well as executioners, and who could grant pardons and accept atonements. The rights of property they understood and respected; and half their wars were retaliatory, for the taking of territory without making just and proper compensation. Their customs were their unwritten laws, more effective than those that fill the tomes of civilized nations, because taught to the people from infancy, and woven into every condition and necessity of their being. The ruling chieftainries, or sub-trial organizations, had representation in the council chambers of the tribe to which they were totemically attached, and these totemic tribes were in turn represented in national councils. Each chieftainry or sub-tribe had its chief, and each chief his counselors, the latter composed either of experienced warriors or aged fathers of families. In times of peace nothing could be done without the consent of the council unanimously expressed. The councils were conducted with the gravest demeanor and the most impressive dignity. No stranger could visit them without a sensation of respect. The chiefs were required to keep good order, and to decide in all quarrels and disputes; but they had no power to command, compel, or punish; their only mode of government was persuasion and exhortation, and in departing from that mode they were deposed by the simple form of forsaking them. The constant restraint which they were under in those respects made them the most courteous, affable and hospitable of men. Tribal rulership was similarly constituted, with the exception that the counselors were from among the chiefs of the sub-tribes, while national councils were a duplication of the tribal, except that they were composed of representatives selected by

the counselors and chiefs of tribes. In times of war the power of the civil government was suspended, but the chief could not declare war without the consent of his captains, and the captains could not begin hostilities except by unanimous consent. The king or sagamore of the nation was a king both with and without power; a sovereign whose rule was perpetuated only through the love of his people; a monarch, the most polished, the most liberal, the poorest of his race, one who ruled by permission, who received no salary, who was not permitted to own the cabin in which he lived or the land he cultivated, who could receive no presents that did not become the property of the nation, yet whose larder and treasure-chest were never empty.

Religion of the Indian—Tribes and chieftainries among them were especially marked by totemic emblems. Totems were rude but distinct armorial bearings or family symbols, denoting original consanguinity, and were universally respected. They were painted upon the person of the Indian and again on the gable end of his cabin, some in black, others in red. The wandering savage appealed to his totem, and was entitled to the hospitality of the wigwam which bore the corresponding emblem. The Lenni Lenapes had three totemic tribes: The Turtle, or Unami; the Turkey, or Unalachto; and the Wolf, or Minsi. The Mahicans had three: The Bear, the Wolf, and the Turtle. The Turtle and the Turkey tribes occupied the seacoast and the southwestern shores of the Hudson. The Wappingers bore the totem of the Wolf, and the Mahicans proper that of the Bear, by virtue of which they were entitled to the office of chief sachem, or king of the nation. The paintings of these totemic emblems were not only rude, but, in the form in which they have been preserved, those of the signatures which they made to deeds for lands were exceedingly so; yet they would compare favorably with the characters which were employed to verify the signatures of very many of their more civilized neighbors. Their religion recognized the existence of God, who dwelt beyond the stars, and a life immortal in which they expected to renew the associations of earth. But with them, as with many Christians of the present day, practically, God had less to do with the world than the devil, who was the chief object of their fears and the source of their earthly hopes. No expeditions of hunting, fishing, or war were undertaken unless the devil was first consulted, and to him they offered the first fruits of the chase or of victory. To him their appeals were made through monstrous fires, around which they danced and subjected themselves to strange contortions, and into which they cast their costly robes of wampum and their prized ornaments, and received their answer in good or bad omens. The blaze of the fires at these conjurations early excited the attention of the

Dutch and won for their devotees the title of Sanhikans, fireworkers, or worshippers of Satan. They were startling in their effect—so startling indeed that the Hollanders, and other Europeans who attended them, became so greatly influenced by them that their observance was ultimately forbidden within the limit of one hundred miles of Christian occupation.

Their wondering over the unseen took a good many other forms. There were remarkable conjurers among them, who could cause "ice to appear in a bowl of fair water in the heat of summer," which, adds the narrator, "was doubtless done by the agility of Satan." For the spiritual they cared nothing, but directed their study principally to the physical, "closely observing the seasons." Their women were the most experienced star-gazers; scarce one who could not name them all, give the time of their rising and setting, and their position, in language of their own. Taurus they described as the horned head of a big wild animal inhabiting the distant country, but not theirs; that when it rose in a certain part of the heavens then it was the season for planting. The first moon following that at the end of February was greatly honored by them. They watched it with devotion, and greeted its appearance with a festival; it was their new year, and they collected together at their chief village or castle, and reveled in their way with wild game or fish, and drank clear river water to their fill, "without," the narrator says, "being intoxicated." The new August moon was the occasion of a festival in honor of the harvest. The firmament was to them an open book, wherein they read the laws for their physical well-being, the dial-plate by which they marked their years.

Tribes and their Territories—Such were some of the traits of the people who were grouped in the territory now covered by Greater New York and its environs. "The finest looking tribe, and the handsomest in their costumes" that were met by Verrazano in 1524 were the Matonwacks of Long Island, or the Montauks, as more modernly known; those who were met by Hudson in Newark Bay in 1609 "clothed in mantles of feathers and robes of fur" were Raritans, who spread through the valley of the Raritan. Both of these enlarged chieftainries were sub-tribes of the Unami, or Turtle Tribe, of the Lenni Lenapes, or "Original People," whose national council-fire was lighted at Philadelphia, and both were divided into numerous family groups or clans—the Canarsees, the Rockaways, the Merikokes, the Marsapeagues, the Matinecoocks, the Nessaquakes, the Setaukets, the Corchaugs, the Manhassets, the Secatogues, the Patchogues, and the Shinecocks being embraced in the jurisdiction of the Montauks, while the Raritans are said to have been divided in two sachemdoms and twenty chieftaincies. They were the Sanhikans,

or fireworkers, of Dutch history, but removed from the valley at an early period in consequence of floods which destroyed their corn. Wyandance was sachem of the Montauks when Block built his ship among them in 1614, and may have been the young king described by Verrazano in 1524. The Hackinsacks, when Hudson anchored in their jurisdiction at Hoboken, were ruled by their grand old sachem, Oritany, who had a following of three hundred warriors, and held his council-fire at Gamoenapa. They were all peaceful people from Montauk to the Highlands of the Hudson, as their totem sufficiently indicates, though suffering much from the wars of others, and in the wars that were forced upon them, until they became extinct, under the conditions involved in the contact of themselves and their kindred with an opposing civilization.

On the east side upon the mainland, De Laet locates the "Manatthanes." He subsequently writes more specifically: "On the right or eastern bank of the river from its mouth dwell the Manhattae, or Manhatthanes, a fierce nation and hostile to our people, from whom, nevertheless, they purchased the island or point of land which is separated from the main by Helle-gat, and where they laid the foundations of a city called New Amsterdam." There is, however, no more trace here of a people bearing the name of "Manhattae, or Manatthanes, except as a title which was conferred by others, than there is of such a people on the west side of the river, or on Long Island. In the record of the wars and treaties with them, and in their deeds transferring title to lands, their tribal and sub-tribal names appear distinctly and conclusively. Daniel Nimham, "a native Indian and acknowledged sachem or king" of the Wappingers, or Wapanachki, is on record by affidavit made October 13, 1730, that "the tribe of the Wappinoes," of which he was king, "were the ancient inhabitants of the eastern shore of Hudson's river from the city of New York to about the middle of Beekman's patent" (Dutchess County), and that, with the Mahicondas, or Mahicans, or Mohegans, "they constituted one nation." Confirmed as this affidavit is by all anterior facts of record, it must be accepted as definitely determining the question to which it relates. True, the possibility exists that at some period unrecorded, perhaps before the glacial era of North America, there was a people known as the Manhattae; that they were overrun and absorbed by the Wapanachki, and left behind them a traditionary name; but it is with the facts of history, and not with theories based on shadowy foundations, that we are dealing. The Mahican or Mohegan nation which was seated upon the eastern side of the Hudson, and to which river they gave their name, the Mahicanituck, were recognized among Indian tribes as a family of the Wapanachki, or "Men of the East," and as "the oldest sons of their grandfather," the Lenni

Lenapes, or the "Original People." Generally they were classed as Algonquins, as were also the tribes on the western side of the river, and spoke the same language, but in a radically different dialect. The clans with whom they were in more immediate contact, the Unamis of Long Island and the New Jersey coasts, crossed this dialect with that of their neighbors and formed that by which they were classified as Manhattans, but the fact that they were a different people the Dutch were not slow to recognize. Bearing the totem of the bear and the wolf; equal in courage, equal in numbers, equal in the advantage of obtaining firearms from the Dutch of Albany, and in their treaty alliances with both the Dutch and the English governments, they marched unsubdued by the rivals of the Iroquois confederacy, even while recoiling from and crumbling under the touch of European civilization, and crowned their decay by efficient service in behalf of the liberties of a people from whose ancestors they had suffered all their woes.

The Wappingers, or Wapanachki, who had a tilt with Hudson, were of the sub-tribe or chieftaincy subsequently known as the Reckgawawancs. The point of land from which their attacks were precipitated was on the north shore of the Papirinimen, or Spuyten Duyvil Creek, where their castle, or palisaded village, called by them Nipinichsen, was located. This castle commanded the approach of their inland territory from the Mahicanituck on the south, while a similarly fortified village at Yonkers, at the mouth of the Neparah, or Sawmill Creek, and known as the Nappeckamak, commanded the approaches on the north. Their territorial jurisdiction extended on the east to the Bronx and East rivers, and on the south included Manhattan Island, which, however, was only temporarily occupied during the seasons of planting and fishing, their huts there constituting their summer seaside resorts, and remaining unoccupied during the winter. Their tract on the mainland was called Kekesick—literally "stony country"—and is described as "lying over against the flats of the island of Manhates." In "Breeden Raedt" their name is given as Reckewackes; in the treaty of 1643 as Reckgawawancs. Tackarew was their sachem in 1639 and was the first one holding that office whose name appears in Dutch records. The most material point in connection with the chieftaincy, however, is the very great certainty that it was the Reckgawawancs who sold Manhattan Island to Director Minuit in 1626, and that they were the "Manhattae, or Manatthanes," so called by De Laet in 1633-40. From the district occupied by the Reckgawawancs the chieftaincies of the Wappingers extended north and east. On the north came in succession the Weckquaesgecks, who were especially conspicuous in the wars with the Dutch; the Sint Sinks; the Tankitekes, and the Kitchawongs, as far as Anthony's Nose; and on the east the chieftaincies of the Siwanoys, north of whom were the

Sequins. The Siwanoys, who are described as "One of the seven tribes of the seacoast," extended from Hell-gate twenty-four miles east along the Sound to Norwalk, Connecticut, and thirty miles into the interior. "The natives here are called Siwanoes" writes De Laet, "and dwell along the same coast for twenty-four miles to the neighborhood of Helle-gat, similar in dress and manners to the other savages." In their territory on Pelham Neck two large mounds are pointed out. One of these is the sepulchre of Sachem Wampage, also called Ann-Hoeck, the presumed murderer of Anne Hutchinson, but quite as likely to have taken that alias from some other circumstance. The other is that of Nimham, who became the king of the Wappingers about the year 1730, and who sealed his devotion to the cause of the colonists with his life in battle with Colonel Simcoe's cavalry, near King's Bridge, in August, 1779.

The district which the Weckquaesgeck chieftaincy occupied is described by De Vries in 1640 as "a place called Wickquaesgeck and the people as Wickquaesgecks." The place to which he refers was the principal village of the chieftaincy, which then occupied the site of Dobb's Ferry, where, it is said, its outlines are marked by numerous shell-beds. The capital, or chief seat of the clan, however, was near Stamford, Connecticut, where its sub-tribal assemblages were held, and where, on the occasion of their gathering, in February, 1643, to celebrate the advent of their new year, which was the most important festival in the aboriginal calendar, they were attacked by the Dutch forces under the leadership of Captain John Underhill, and all massacred indiscriminately. Wicker's Creek, upon which they were located on the Hudson, was called by them Wysquaqua. Their second village and castle on the Hudson was called Alipconck. Its site is now occupied by the village of Tarrytown. The Dutch forces are said to have burned two of their stockaded villages in 1644, and to have retained the third as a place to which they might retreat. Conquest of the castles destroyed was easily made, the occupants having gone to the new year festival near Stamford, where they were slaughtered as noted. The castles which were destroyed are spoken of as having been constructed of "plank five inches thick and nine feet high, and braced around with thick walls full of port-holes" in which "thirty Indians could have stood against two hundred." These castles, however, were not those on the Hudson, but were approached from Greenwich on the Sound, from which it is inferred that they were tribally a chieftaincy of the Siwanoys, who were also known in the eastern part of Westchester County and in southwestern Connecticut as the Tankitekes. Local designations, however, are of little moment. They were especially connected with the early wars with the Dutch and were members of the tribal family of Wappingers, in confederacy with the Mahicans of the Mahicanituck, whose triumphs and whose woes, whose

primal vigor and whose decay would fill many chapters of thrilling and romantic interest, and of whom it cannot be said with truth that they left

> "No trace
> To save their own, or serve another race."

Tribal Speech and Local Names—Four different languages, namely Manhattan, Minqua, Savanos, and Wappanoos, are noted by the Dutch historians as having been spoken by the Indians. With the Manhattan they included, as already stated, the dialect spoken in the neighborhood of Fort Amsterdam, "along the North River, on Long Island, and at the Neversinks." It was, no doubt, this classification by dialect that led the Dutch to the adoption of the generic title of Manhattans as the name of the people among whom they made their settlements. The study which the discussion of Indian dialects invites need not be entered into here. Primarily there were but two Indian languages, the Algonquin and the Iroquois, all others were dialects. The dialect of the Manhattans as well as that of the tribes classed with them, cannot be described in any other way than as being peculiar to themselves, and even among themselves the greatest diversity existed. "They vary frequently," writes Wassenaer, in 1621, "not over five or six miles; forthwith comes another language; they meet and can hardly understand one another." Illustrative of this diversity, it may be remarked that man, in Long Island, is "run"; "wonnun," in Wappinoo; "nemanoo," in Mahican; "lemo," in Algonquin. Mother is "cwca," in Long Island; akaaooh," in Wappinoo; "akegan," in Mahican; "gahowes," in Algonquin. But aside from this diversity the fundamental characteristic of the dialects was the universal tendency to express in the same word not only all that modified or related to the same object or action, but both the action and the object; thus concentrating in a single expression a complex idea, or several ideas among which there was natural connection. "All other features of the language," remarks Gallatin, "seem to be subordinate to that general principle. The object in view has been attained by various terms of the same tendency and often blended together; a multitude of inflections, so called; a still greater number of compound words, sometimes formed by the coalescence of primitive words not materially altered, more generally by the union of many such words in a remarkably abbreviated form, and numerous particles, either significative, or the original meaning of which has been lost, prefixed, added as terminations, or inserted in the body of the word."

The geographical terms of the Red Men may be described as of two classes, general or generic, and specific or local. In specific names the combination may be simple, as Coxackie, "co," object, and "acke," land;

in others intricate, as Maghaghkemeck, in which "acke," land, is buried in consonants and qualifying terms. The terminal of a word materially aids but does not govern its translation. "Uk" or "unk" indicates "place of" in a more general sense as in Manacknong, modified in Aquehonga, as illustrated in the name of Staten Island; "ik," "ick," "eck," or "uk" denotes rocks or stones. Quasuck, applied to a small stream of water, would simply mean "stony brook," while Quaspeck, as applied to a hill, would signify "stony hill," as in the case of Verdrietig Hoeck, or Tedious Point, as the Dutch called the well-known Hudson headland; "ack" or "acke," land—"ing" or "ink," something in which numbers are presented, as in Neversink, a "place of birds;" "ais," "ees," "os," "aus," denote a small object or place, as Minnisais, a small island—a number of islands, Minnising or Minnisink. These illustrations are sufficient to show that while terms were in the main composed of the simplest descriptive equivalents—a black hill, or a red one, a large hill, or a small one, a small stream of water or a large one, or one which was muddy or stony, a field of maize or of leeks, overhanging rocks or dashing waterfalls—the Algonquin language was yet capable of poetic combinations which were not only beautiful, but which must ever remain attractive from their peculiarity and their history.

Manhattan Island is without other recorded name than that given it by the Dutch. "It was the Dutch and not the Indians who first called it Manhattan" is the unquestioned testimony of history. It was likewise the Dutch who gave the name to The Bronx. The Indians never gave a local term to themselves; others did that for them. Several places on the island, however, are marked by Indian names. Kapsee has been given as that of the extreme point of land between the Hudson and East rivers, and is still known as Copsie Point. It is said to signify "the safe place for landing," as it may have been, but "ee" should have been written as "ick." The Dutch called it Capsey Hoeck; they erected a "hand," or guide-board, to indicate that all vessels under fifty tons were to anchor between that point and the "hand," or guide-board, which stood opposite the "stadtherberg," built in 1642. This indicates that the point had the peculiarity which is held to be expressed by the Indian name. Sappokanikan, a point of land on the Hudson below Greenwich Street, has been explained as indicating "the carrying place," the presumption being that the Indians, at that place, carried their canoes over and across the island to the East River, to save the trouble of paddling down to Kapsee Point and from thence up the East River. This explanation is, however, too limited. It was from this point that the Indians crossed the river to Hobokan-Hacking, subsequently known as Pavonia, now Jersey City, and maintained between the two points a

commercial route of which that existing there at the present time is the successor. Lapinikan, an Indian village or collection of huts which was located here, had no doubt some special connection with the convenience of the Indian travelers. Corlaer's Hoeck was called Naig-ia-nac, literally "sand lands." It may, however, have been the name of the Indian village which stood there, and was in temporary occupation. It was to this village that a considerable number of Indians retreated from savage foes in February, 1643, and were there massacred by the Dutch. Near Chatham Square was an eminence called Warpoes-"wa," singular, "oes," small—literally a "sand hill." Another hill, at the corner of Charlton and Varick streets, was called Ishpatinau—literally a "bad hill" or one having some faulty peculiarity, "ish" being the qualifying term. Ishibic probably correctly described the narrow ridge or ancient cliff north of Beekman Street to which it was applied. Acitoc is given as the name for the height of land in Broadway; Abic, as that of a rock rising up in the Battery, and Penabic, "the comb mountain," as that of Mount Washington. A tract of meadow land, on the north end of the island near Kingsbridge, was called Muscoota, which is said to signify "grass land," but as the same name is given to the Harlem River, another signification is implied, unless in the latter case the word should be rendered as "the river of the grass lands." A similar dual application of name appears in Papirinimen, which is given as that of a tract of land "on the north end of the island," about One Hundred and Twenty-eighth Street between the Spuyten Duyvil and the Harlem, and also that of the Spuyten Duyvil. Shorackappock is said to have described the junction of the Spuyten Duyvil and the Hudson, but the equivalents of the term—"sho" and "acka"—indicate that the interpretation should be, as in Shotag (now Shodac), "the fireplace," or place at which the council chamber of the chieftaincy was held,—an interpretation which clothes the locality with an interest of more significance than the ocurrence there of the attack on the "Half-Moon." All the neighborhood of what is now Manhattan and The Bronx was intersected by Indian paths, the principal one of which ran north from the Battery or Kapsee Point to City Hall Park, where it was crossed by one which ran west to the village of Lapinikan, and east to Naig-ia-nac, or Corlear's Hoeck. The name assigned to the village, Lapinikan, may have been that of this crossing path, which was continued from Pavonia south to the Lenapewihitrik, or Delaware River. Many of the ancient roads followed the primary Indian footpaths.

The aboriginal names of the islands in the waters around Manhattan and The Bronx have been preserved with more or less accuracy. Staten Island is called in the deed of De Vries, in 1636, Monacknong; in the

deed to Capellen, in 1655, Ehquaoas, and in that to Governor Lovelace, in 1670, Aquehonga-Manacknong, titles which are presumed to have covered the portions owned by the Raritans and the Hackinsacks respectively. The names in the deeds to De Vries and Capellen, however, are but another orthography for those in the deed to Lovelace. Manacknong, signifying "good land" in a general sense, may be accepted as the aboriginal name. Governor's Island was called by the Dutch Nooten Island, "because excellent nut-trees grew there," and possibly also from Pecanuc, the Algonquin term for nut-trees. Bedloe's Island was called Minnisais, a pure Algonquin term for "small island." It does not appear to have possessed a qualifying character of any kind. Ellis Island was Kioshk, or Gull Island, and that of Blackwell's, or Welfare, was Minnahononck, a phrase that is not without poetic elements, but has none in this connection, "minna" being simply "good." In its vicinity is Hellgate, to which Monatun has been applied—"a word," says an eminent authority, "carrying in its multiplied forms the various meanings of violent, dangerous, etc.," in which sense it may be accepted without requiring the authority by which it was conferred. Objection is proper, however, when philological argument is made to extend the term to "the people of the island among whom the Dutch first settled," in which connection it can have no significance whatever. The name of Long Island is sometimes written Sewanhacky from "sewan," its shell money, and "acky," land; but its aboriginal title appears to have been Matouwacky—"ma," large, excellent; "acky" or "acke," land.

Aborigines and the Settlers—Meanwhile the Indians of Manhattan and The Bronx were beset on the east by European invaders as well as on the west and south. The English settlers in Connecticut gradually pushed westward and coveted the lands on the eastern horizon of Westchester. On July 1, 1640, Ponus, sagamore of Toquaus, and Wascussue, sagamore of Shippan, sold to Nathan Turner, who acted for the people of New Haven, the tract known to the Indians as Rippowams, which included the greater portion of what is now Fairfield County, in Connecticut, and a considerable area of the adjoining lands of Westchester. On August 11, 1655, Ponus and Onox, his eldest son, confirmed this sale to the inhabitants of Stamford. Subsidiary to this great sale numerous others were made—some of lands included in these transactions, and others of adjacent lands, like the area made over to Thomas Pell, of Fairfield, Connecticut, in 1654, and to Edward Jessup and John Richardson, in 1663, of tracts adjoining those sold to the Dutch in the southern part of Westchester County. By these sales the Indians disposed of the entire area of Westchester County, except a few insignificant reservations and the right to plant corn upon certain portions for a term of

years. Many of these deeds overlapped each other, so that some of the land was sold two or three times. This was done without any dishonest intent on the part of the Indians. They never understood, when giving these deeds, what they meant, for they had no comprehension of what we call the title to land. They understood the right of occupation and use, and nothing more. The written deed had no special force in their eyes, and its phraseology was, of course, incomprehensible to them. By their law and custom the ownership ceased when the land was deserted. If the area deeded by them was not at once occupied they could sell it again to others. If they drove the new purchasers away by force, they thereby regained ownership. Therefore in many cases they insisted, and as the settlers thought dishonestly, that their original rights remained vested in themselves, and the purchaser was compelled to repeat his purchase for the purpose of obtaining a quitclaim.

The remuneration named in the deeds consisted for the most part of a few hoes, hatchets, knives, kettles, articles of clothing, rum and "divers other goods." These seem insignificant today, of course, but they appeared of considerable value to the Indians and of no small value to the settlers themselves. The Indian's attitude of mind on these things is easily understood. He had no adequate ideas of value. "This coat would make him a king; this knife would be the pride of his life; these trinkets delighted his eyes, or, if a worthier idea influenced him, he remembered how the squaws had toiled in cultivating the corn with a miserable clam shell, and he rejoiced at the thought of their labor being lightened by the iron hoe that was offered him. By simply placing his hand on the meaningless paper all these were secured. At best he but made a virtue of necessity, and was happy to secure these coveted trinkets, the nominal price for giving a nominal consent for the white man to occupy the land."

When Hudson sailed from the river he had rediscovered after Verrazzano, its shores re-echoed with the war-cries of a people whose confidence he had abused and whose kindred he had slain. The hostility he had awakened was not mitigated by subsequent events, and when, afterwards, the traders came, mutual suspicion was not long in bringing about the clash of arms. As soon as the Dutch had made a settlement their cattle were allowed to run at large for pasturage, and "frequently came into the corn of the Indians, which was unfenced on all sides, committing great damage there. This led to complaints on their part, and finally to revenge on the cattle, without sparing even the horses." In 1626 a Weckquaesgeck Indian, from the vicinity of Tarrytown, while on his way to Fort Amsterdam, to exchange his furs, was robbed and killed by men in the employ of Peter Minuit, the first

Dutch director. The Weckquaesgeck was accompanied by his nephew, who was a boy, and another Indian. The Dutch were not aware of this outrage till long afterwards. The boy, true to the principles of his race, treasured a revenge which he believed to be his duty to exact in manhood. He awaited no longer than to reach a warrior's age of seventeen, when he took some beaver skins to barter, and, stepping at the house of a Dutchman, he killed him while examining the goods. Having thus secured the blood atonement demanded by the murder of a relative, he returned to his home. Governor Kieft demanded the surrender of the offender; but the Weckquaesgecks refused to give him up. There was great excitement in New Amsterdam. Expeditions to exterminate the Indians were organized; but they accomplished nothing. Finally, a treaty was concluded between the Dutch and the Indians, the former agreeing to some matters required by the latter on condition that the murderer should be surrendered. But the treaty was never fulfilled by either party. It was a very difficult matter to have an Indian arrested whose actions had been in strict accordance with the laws and customs of his race. Against the advice of the chief men of Manhattan, Governor Kieft had sent a company of eighty men against the Weckquaesgecks in March, 1642, and although they did little damage, the Indians were greatly incensed. Various causes of irritation had brought the Dutch and Indians into violent collision west of the Hudson, and finally these Indians made common cause with the Weckquaesgecks and the Dutch were swept from Westchester, and compelled to take refuge in Fort Amsterdam. "From the swamps and thickets the mysterious enemy made his sudden onset. The farmer was murdered in the open field; women and children, granted their lives, were swept off into long capitivity; houses and boweries, haystacks and grain, cattle and crops were destroyed." The Indians were now satisfied, and on April 22, 1643, they made a treaty of peace, in which it was declared that "all injuries committed by the said natives against the Netherlanders, or by the Netherlanders against the said natives, shall be forgiven and forgotten forever, reciprocally promising one the other to cause no trouble the one to the other." But, in September of that year, war broke out again, beginning with the capture by the Indians of two boats descending the river from Fort Orange, and again the Dutch settlers were all driven into Fort Amsterdam. The Weckquaesgecks attacked the residence of Anne Hutchinson, who had been driven out of New England by the Puritans, and had settled within the present bounds of Pelham, and killed her, as well as her daughter and her son-in-law, carrying her granddaughter into capitivity. The child was kept by the Indians for four years and was then sent back to her friends. She had

forgotten what of her native tongue she had learnt and was quite unwilling to leave her Indian guardians. Throgmorton's settlement on Throg's Neck was also attacked and its buildings burned, while the people escaped in their boats. The position of the Dutch was perilous in the extreme and had the Indians known their power the whites would have been swept away. Governor Kieft in the circumstances solicited aid from New England, offering a large sum for men and arms, and proposing that New Netherland should be mortgaged to secure the payment of the money. They received the aid, however, of only a few English volunteers. Two companies, one of sixty-five and one of seventy-five men, were soon organized, and the work of retaliation commenced. Quantities of corn were captured upon Staten Island and Long Island and an expedition sailed to Greenwich, in Connecticut, and marched through the eastern borders of Westchester County, but accomplished little more than the burning of a couple of forsaken castles and some quantities of corn. Prisoners taken in these expeditions were taken to Fort Amsterdam, where they were treated with shocking cruelty, as is recorded in the "Breeden Raedt." A more formidable expedition was then organized. Hearing that a large number of Indians were assembled at their village on the Mehanas, near the present village of Bedford, the force was taken in sailing vessels to Greenwich and then marched through the snow to their destination, which was reached about midnight. The village consisted of three rows of houses ranged in streets, each eight paces long. The village was surrounded; the surprised Indians were shot down as soon as they appeared and the houses were set on fire. The inmates preferred to perish in the flames rather than to fall by their enemy's weapons. In this merciless manner five hundred human beings were murdered, and the figure has even been given as seven hundred. The military power of the Indians was thus broken and thereafter warlike preparations ceased. On August 30, 1645, a general treaty of peace was concluded between the Dutch and the Indians of the lower Hudson, and signed by their respective chiefs—Aepjen, the grand sachem of the Mohegans, representing his people. This treaty was an equitable agreement and was carefully respected. Thus was ended a war which had been carried on for over five years and in which, it is said, over sixteen hundred Indians perished. The Dutch recorded:

> Our fields lie fallow and waste, our dwellings and other buildings are burnt, not a handful can be planted or sown this fall on all the abandoned places. All this through a foolish hankering after war, for it is known to all right thinking men here that these Indians have lived as lambs among us until a few years ago, injuring no one and affording every assistance to our nation.

The earliest contacts with the aborigines in New Amsterdam and the

region about it were thus of a troubled kind. Unquestionably the new settlers were brutal and unjust, as brutal and unjust in their dealings with each other as Europeans have generally been with each other through all their history. It is painful to read of these slayings and these burnings, but it is hard to see how enmity between the settlers and the Indians could be avoided. The utmost efforts at friendship on the part of the Europeans could only bring about a temporary period of peace. There were sure to be unruly spirits on both sides who would do something to kindle the spirit of war. There seems to be something in animal and in human nature that drives towards conflict, and here on this new soil the conditions were ripe for it. The settlers had had a hard time in Europe. War and oppression they themselves had seen and felt at first hand. Their departure to the new land was in the character of a flight. They needed lands on which to make a home. They could not have those lands without taking them from the Indians. The Indians in deeding the lands had no real sense of the transaction they were making. It would have been wonderful if the settlers could have been at pains to instruct them not merely in this but in all the elements of what civilization they themselves possessed and if the two races could have lived side by side on terms of equality and fraternity. But it could not be done, and all the murder and disorder had to happen, and all we can do at the present day is to regret it, and to marvel what great end is served by all the conflict there is in the world.

There are traditions of the slaughter of large numbers of Indians at other points in and near Westchester and Manhattan, but little evidence has been found to substantiate the fragmentary testimony. Mount Misery, near the Sound, has long been said to have derived its name from the slaughter of Indians there by the Huguenots of New Rochelle. There is no record of such an engagement, and the story has been pronounced altogether improbable. The Indians of Westchester took no part in the Esopus wars of the succeeding years farther up the Hudson, nor did they engage in the French and Indian wars which rolled so frightfully along the borders of Massachusetts and Connecticut, nor in other wars that followed elsewhere. After their great loss in 1645 the Indians felt that they had no other course but to seek homes elsewhere. Year by year the tide of settlers rolled forward and made the conditions of Indian occupation impossible; and, although considerable numbers continued for a long time to remain upon the lands they had sold to the whites, they gradually wasted away, many of them moving to their friends farther north, and making Stockbridge in Massachusetts the headquarters of the tribe. Ultimately the remnant that remained was removed thence to the State of Michigan. Their exit from the neigh-

borhood of The Bronx and from Westchester County was very gradual, for they "loved to linger where they loved so well." At some points they settled for a time in groups, and Indian Hill, in Yorktown, became memorable as the last spot in Westchester County inhabited by a band of aborigines. Individual families remained longer in other localities. They left few material evidences here of their long habitation. But the old Indian names of mountain and river and region still remain among us in all their liquid and mysterious beauty, and throw over the robust familiarity of a commercial civilization that is but a stronger extension of the civilization of Europe, a glamour that speaks perhaps more potently to the visiting foreigner than to the native hero of the glamour of our Indian childhood. It is this Indian element in our culture, frail though it be, that gives it its distinctive aspect. It is this that preserves our nomenclature from being a mere gross aping of the familiar nomenclature of Europe. Let us preserve it, for it is original. The other is a mere caricature, for it has no natural affinity here, and though it were a perfect imitation, it is well to remember that the imitation is always inferior to the original. Let us draw the nomenclature of our localities and our streets rather from the treasury of old Indian names than from associations with titled hoboes over the Atlantic. It is more in keeping with American self-respect and a better indication of character, for even small things like these have meaning, and are significant of our state of mind, whether we admire mean things meanly, or admirable things in an admirable spirit. And after all we owe some tribute of remembrance to the stalwart barbarians whose land we took not because we were better but because we had better instruments of war.

CHAPTER III

SETTLEMENT BY EUROPEANS

On August 3, 1639, there was conveyed by the Indian sachems, Tequeemet, Rechgawac, and Pachimiens, to the West India Company, through Secretary Cornelius Van Tienhoven, a tract of land, "called Keskeskeck, stretching lengthwise along the Kil which runs behind the island of Manhattan, mostly east and west, and beginning at the head of said Kil and running to opposite of the high hill by the flat, namely, by the Great Kil, with all right, titles," and so forth. The "Kil behind the island of Manhattan" is the Harlem River; the "Great Kil" is the Hudson; and the "high hill by the flat" is, probably, the hill at the north end of the island; the "flat" refers to the plains of Harlem. The boundaries of this tract, particularly to the northward, are indefinite; but the tract later became the lower portion of Westchester County, and, later still, the borough. The transfer was made "in consideration of a certain lot of merchandise" with the sachems indicated they had received.

The flats of Harlem had already been occupied as bouweries, or farms, by the Dutch settlers, and it is probable that some of the boers, or farmers, crossed the river and occupied the new land "upon the Maine." In the year 1640 a second purchase was made of the lands to the eastward of Keskeskeck; and in 1641, Jonas Bronk, or Brunk, made a purchase of five hundred acres of land between the Harlem and the Aquahung rivers. The latter stream soon after lost its Indian name and became known after its proprietor as Bronk's River; the name Bronk's, or Bronx, became also applied to the valley of the river and later to the political division delimited for purposes of government. These early facts introduce us to the preliminary processes by which what is now the Borough of The Bronx shuffled off its aboriginal coil and began its career as part of a colony settled by Europeans.

Period of Discovery—There was of course a much more important preliminary history, a broad stream of events of which the particulars just referred to represented a small eddy and backwater. To the resident of New York and The Bronx, as important and interesting an event as is in the history of the State and city is the discovery of New York bay and the great river which flowed into it. This will be the immortal garland in the brow of Giovanni da Verrazano, for though immediate settlement did not follow his explorations of Hudson his visit to the

inner waters of Manhattan antedated the visit of Hudson by almost a hundred years. Verrazano appears to have had a large experience as a sailor upon the Mediterranean, eventually entering the service of Francis I of France. In 1523 Verrazano was engaged in capturing Spanish ships that brought the treasures of Montezuma from Mexico. In the year that followed he made his voyage to America. His letter addressed to the French king is of unique interest, particularly for the reason that it contains the first known description of the North Atlantic coast, and the first pen-picture of the bay and harbor of New York. The narrative of Verrazano has exerted a commanding influence on historical literature, and for more than three centuries has furnished quotations to the chroniclers. The voyage of Verrazano was projected in 1523. In that year the Portuguese ambassador at the court of Francis I wrote to his master: "By what I hear, Maestro Joas Verrazano, who is going on the discovery of Cathay, has not left up to date for want of opportunity, and because of differences, I understand between himself and his men . . I shall continue to doubt unless he takes his departure." It appears that he first went to sea with four ships, but met with a severe gale and was obliged to return to port, apparently with the loss of two ships. After making repairs he sailed for the Spanish coast alone in the "Dolphin," the captain of the remaining ship leaving Verrazano.

On March 7, Verrazano saw land which "never before had been seen by any one either in ancient or modern times," a statement that he was led into by a desire to claim something for France. Navigating northward the Italian navigator reached the neighborhood of the present site of Charleston, South Carolina, describing the country substantially as it appears today, bordered with low sand hills, the sea making inlets, while beyond were beautiful fields, broad plains and vast forests. Touching on Delaware Bay Verrazano coasted northward, sailing by day and coming to anchor at night, finally reaching the bay of New York.

We found a very pleasant situation among some little steep hills, he wrote, through which a very large river (grandissima riviera), deep at its mouth, forced its way to the sea, and he adds: From the sea to the estuary of the river any ship might pass, with the help of the tide, which rises eight feet. This is about the average rise of the Hudson at the present time, and the fact is one that could be learned only by actual observation. It points to the "bar" as then existing, and gives the narrative every appearance of reality. Many things observed were noted in what the navigator called his "little book," and evidently it was from data contained in that book that his brother compiled the map which illustrates the voyage. Verrazano was cautious in the Narrows as he commanded only one ship, writing: As we were riding at anchor in a good berth we would not venture up in our ship without a knowledge of the mouth; therefore we took the boat and entering the river, we found the country on its banks well-peopled, the inhabitants not differing much from the others, being dressed out with feathers of birds of various colors.

This is very interesting as being the first picture afforded us of the Hudson River and the aborigines on its banks, who on this occasion came first in contact with the white man. It is easy to imagine the wonder of the Red Men as the "Dolphin" moved over the waters in front of them, propelled as it must have seemed to them by some supernatural agency. They showed by their action that their faith in human nature had not yet been spoiled by any foreign treachery or violence. Verrazano's narrative goes on: "We passed up this river about half a league when we found it formed a most beautiful lake, three leagues in circuit, upon which were rowing thirty or forty small boats from one shore to the other, filled with multitudes who came to see us." This "beautiful lake" (bellissimo lago) was manifestly the bay of New York.

Verrazano passed the bar and anchored at the entrance of the Narrows, the position being defined as between "little steep hills," a phrase which describes with accuracy the heights of Staten Island and the shore of Long Island as far as Yellow Hook, the present Bay Ridge. Then far and wide the spacious harbor was surrounded by well-wooded shores, upon which Verrazano and his followers, manifestly the first European to enter the waters, gazed with admiration. Before them lay the island of Manhattan, clothed in dusky brown, touched here and there with patches of evergreen pine. On the shore the smoke of many wigwams was seen by day and the illumination of blazing fires by night. The situation was pleasing, but it did not offer what Verrazano sought, namely an opening to India. He did not tarry long. "All of a sudden," he writes, "as it is wont to happen to navigators, a violent contrary wind blew in from the sea and forced us to return to our ship, greatly regretting to leave this region, which seemed so commodious and delightful, and which we supposed must have contained great riches, as the hills showed many indications of minerals." Evidently they had examined at close hand the gneiss and mica-schist of the rocky eminences—the sandstones, shales and limestones, once stratified sedimentary beds but then, as now, upheaved and set on edge and by metamorphism converted into compact crystalline strata—not that Verrazano would see all this significance in it any more than he would foresee the great Babylon that a dozen generations later would obliterate the landmarks. A glance at the chart shows that the ship lay in the lower bay in a position perilous to a stranger and that in case of a gale she would be driven upon the shore of either Long Island or Staten Island. Verrazano would not take his ship through the Narrows into the harbor on account of his ignorance of the situation, and when the wind set upon the shore from the sea he at once decided to get out of danger. Accordingly he says: "Weighing anchor we sailed fifty leagues to the east, the coast

stretching in that direction, and always in sight of it." Thus he coasted along the shore of Long Island, and "discovered an island in triangular form, some ten leagues from the mainland, in size about equal to the island of Rhodes." This was Block Island. All this makes it perfectly clear that Verrazano was the first visitor to New York and that he correctly described the coast.

Hudson in the River—During the century that followed the coast of America had numerous visitors from Europe and there can be very little doubt that the waters around New York carried some of them, but it was not till Hudson's voyage in the first decade of the seventeenth century, that the exploration of the river and land was taken up with a view to settlement. Hudson's voyage bore fruit at once in trading voyages begun in the very next year; in colonizations on the banks of the river within five years after Hudson's detailed description of it was given to the world; and finally in the permanent occupation of the valley. The "Half-Moon" cast anchor in "a great lake of water" on September 2, 1609. To the northward were seen high hills, "a very good land to fall in with, and a pleasant land to see." The hills were the Navesinks, and the lake the Lower Bay. Hudson remained in the vicinity a longer time than Verrazano. He remained in the Lower Bay for about ten days, shifting his position occasionally, sending out boats cautiously to sound the broad expanse of waters and ascertain the channel, and dealing distrustfully with the savages that flocked around his ship. At one time the boat was sent between the Narrows to explore the bay beyond; but it was a fatal mission resulting in the death of Coleman, one of the crew, whether by accident or design, shot through the throat with an arrow. At last, on September 12th, the "Half-Moon" was steered into the opening between the "small, steep hills" which Verrazano had described, and went up two leagues, which, if it were measured exactly from the Narrows, would have brought her about opposite to the Battery. Drifting with the tide as it went up the river and anchoring when it ebbed the next day eleven and a half miles were gained, and anchor was cast not far above Spuyten Duyvil Creek.

We thus find Hudson and The Bronx in juxtaposition and thus Manhattan and the mainland behind it were opened up almost simultaneously to the world. From the position near the creek a "high point of land" was seen "which shewed out to us bearing north by east five leagues off us," and the Hook Mountain, which towers over the village of Nyack, may thereby be identified. On September 14, a favorable wind was first obtained and it carried the "Half-Moon" thirty-six miles up stream, past the beetling walls of the Palisades, and to the very portals of the Highlands. "The land grew very high and mountainous." Twenty

leagues more were made on the 15th, and these sixty miles would have carried the explorers through the Highlands and within view of the Catskills, with their long and undulating line far above any of the hills or highlands upon which they had hitherto looked. "Passing by high mountains" is the brief record of the matter-of-fact log-book, the writer being evidently more intent upon the replenishing of the ship's stores by contributions of "Indian corn and pompions" on the part of the friendly natives, and by means of the abundance of fish to be caught in the river. Six miles more were gained during the ensuing night, but then followed a series of groundings on the unexpected sand-banks, or mud-flats. Eighteen miles higher up the river might have brought them about opposite the location of Hudson City, where certainly there are "shoals in the middle of the river and small islands, but seven fathoms water on both sides." "Riding still" all day of the 18th a visit was made on land in the afternoon by "our master's mate," says Juet, who had care of the log-book, but De Laet quotes Hudson's own journal, and this represents the navigator himself as going on shore. There he saw the habitation of an old chief, a circular house with an arched roof and covered with bark. He was especially impressed with the profusion of vegetable products lying about the house, and as a result exclaims that this was "the finest land for cultivation that he ever in his life trod upon." A feast was prepared in his honor, consisting of freshly killed pigeons and a fat dog; but he forbears to mention, or at least De Laet omits to do so, whether he partook of the latter delicacy. On September 19th, with fair and hot weather, a run of two leagues was made; and then beavers and otters' skins, obtained for a trifle, began to indicate a source of profitable trade, which was not lost upon the Dutch commercial public when the account of this voyage reached the Netherlands. On the 20th the precaution was taken to send the boat up ahead of the vessel in order to sound the depth, and the "Half-Moon" rode at anchor all day and night. The next day was again a memorable one; no progress was made but "our master and his mate determined to try some of the chief men of the country, whether they had any treachery in them." It must be admitted that Hudson resorted to a questionable experiment. The savage chiefs were taken into the cabin and treated to an abundance of "wine and aque-vitae" so that in the end "one of them was drunk, and that was strange to them; for they could not tell how to take it." On September 22 the boat had gone up nearly twenty-seven miles beyond the present anchorage of the "Half-Moon," and then the disappointing conclusion was forced upon the ship's company that their dream of a northwest passage would have to be abandoned. There were but seven feet of water at that distance and the river was growing

narrower and more shallow. Hitherto there had been nothing to discourage the belief that the river they were on might be a strait like Magellan's at the southern extremity of the hemisphere. For long stretches that strait drew its banks together to within even a smaller distance than that which separated the shores of this great river of the mountains. But the report brought by the master's mate was fatal to their hopes. This was a river, and not a strait; they had reached the head of navigation "and found to be at an end for shipping to go in." Accordingly on the 23rd the anchor was weighed and the descent of the river began. In two days the "Half-Moon" had gone some thirty miles, and on the 24th "we went on land and gathered good store of chestnuts." The monotony of the progress by water was diversified on the 25th by a brisk walk along the west shore, which resulted in a minute observation of the excellency of the soil, the abundance of slate rock in the vicinity and of other good stone, and with particular delight were noticed the "great store of goodly oaks, and walnut trees, and chestnut trees, yew trees, and trees of sweet wood." The next day, the wind being contrary though the weather was fine, the opportunity was seized to place on the ship a quantity of logs as specimens of the richness of this country in timber for shipbuilding purposes. A pleasant visit from old chiefs formerly met was made to the ship, and Hudson returned their courtesy by causing them to dine with him. On September 27th a strong wind from the north would have sent them far down the river if they had not struck upon a muddy bank; only about six leagues were thus made, and they may by this time have come within a few miles of Fishkill and Newburgh. Fifteen miles more brought them to the entrance of the Highlands from the north on the 28th. And here Hudson remained stationary for about two days: "Storm King" and "Breakneck" loomed up high and forbidding like two grim sentinels, and the cautious pilot would not venture among the treacherous mountains while the wind blew strong, "because the high land hath many points and a narrow channel, and hath many eddy winds." On the 29th and 30th, accordingly, they lay at anchor in Newburgh Bay with "the wind at southeast, a stiff gale between the mountains." Looking intently at either shore they came to the conclusion that this was "a very pleasant place to build a town on;" and surely their prescience has been justified by the event, as the sight of Newburgh and Fishkill abundantly testifies. October 1st was an eventful day. The wind changed, and in one uninterrupted run of twenty-one miles they cleared the troublesome channel of the Highlands and left the mountains behind them. But in other respects the adventurers were less fortunate. An Indian was caught stealing; "he got up by our rudder to the cabin window, and stole out my pillow,"

writes Juet, "and two shirts and two bandoleers. Our master's mate shot at him and struck him in the breast and killed him." Then the ship's boat was manned and sent to recover the stolen goods; the Indians swam out to it, and one trying to upset it "the cook took a sword and cut off one of his hands, and he was drowned." Thus two lives had been sacrificed that day and trouble with the revengeful natives was sure to follow.

Next day the trouble came. Seven leagues farther down the strong incoming tide and a light wind compelled them to anchor. There a savage whom they had kidnapped on their upward journey, but who had escaped, lay in wait to have his revenge. An attack was made on the ship's company with bows and arrows, which fell harmless on the deck. But a discharge of six muskets slew two or three of the natives. "Then above a hundred of them came to a point of land to shoot at us. There I shot a falcon among them, and killed two of them, whereupon the rest fled into the wood." The savages still persisting in the attack, manned a canoe; at which Juet leveled another falcon, or small cannon, shooting through the canoe, which sank with the Indians, and as they struggled in the water a second discharge of muskets killed several more. Another six miles and they came to anchor off "a cliff that looked of the color of white green"; and thereby we know that they were nearly opposite the Elysian Fields of Hoboken. October 3rd was a stormy day, which gave them much trouble with their anchorage. Still the shelter of the Upper Bay was enjoyed by them and no harm came of it. On October 4th, the weather being fair and the wind favorable, the "Half-Moon" sailed out from between the headlands of the Narrows, the first vessel to leave the port of New York direct for Europe. She stood straight across the ocean, discarding the ordinary course by way of the West Indies and the Canaries. Indeed in the opinion of some of her officers her mission was by no means accomplished, and they thought she ought even then to have steered for the northwest and through Davis's Strait to India. The underskipper, who was a Dutchman, Van Meteren tells us, was for spending the winter at Terra Nova, or Newfoundland, and continuing the business of Arctic exploration the next season. But Hudson found reason for his course apparently in the temper of his motley crew, and feared a mutiny unless a course was made towards home. Hence, as Juet concludes, "We continued our course toward England without seeing any land by the way, all the rest of this month of October"; and on November 7, 1609, the "Half-Moon" arrived safely at Dartmouth.

Coming of the Dutch—We need not follow Hudson in his subsequent career. Enough that his voyage led in course of time through a series

of events to the founding of New Amsterdam. Interest in the regions brought again to European notice by Hudson spread to other cities besides Amsterdam. A number of merchants residing at Rotterdam, Hoorn, and Enkhuizen, then the most active commercial towns next to the metropolis, having heard something concerning a new navigable river and country thereabouts, but perhaps designedly kept in ignorance of its true location, brought pressure to bear upon the magistrates of their respective cities to demand for them, from either the Provincial or the General Government, precise information and official charts, so that they too might despatch vessels thither. A similar request proceeded from certain Amsterdam merchants also, who were evidently not admitted to the privileged circles of the East India Company that had financed Hudson. Hence at the meeting of the States of Holland Province on September 7, 1611, a demand was submitted on the part of the deputies from those four cities, asking that their constituents be furnished with the data in question.

With this information some of the five ships mentioned by name in the charter of 1614 were no doubt despatched to the new quarter early in 1612. Of one of these ships Hendrick Christiaensen was captain, master, or skipper, as the commander of a merchant vessel was then variously designated. On the testimony of Wassenaer, living at that time, a resident of Amsterdam, and thus a fellow-townsman of Christiaensen, the latter had been favorably impressed with the country about the mouth of the Hudson, after but a brief glance at it. Sailing with a heavily laden ship from the West Indies towards Holland, he approached the Lower Bay, but he dared not enter or anchor, having in mind the fate of a former vessel from a neighboring city in North Holland, which had stranded there and had been wrecked. We have no other account of this vessel, or of the errand upon which it was sent, and which ended so disastrously; and hence we incidentally learn that unrecorded voyages must have been made, during those early years after Hudson's. The glimpse which Christiaensen had obtained sufficed to kindle within him a strong desire to revisit those regions. He succeeded in awakening a similar enthusiasm on the part of his friend, Adriaen Block. The two at first chartered a vessel together, they themselves going with it to America, but placing her in command of Captain Ryser. Without definite data to fix the exact time of this voyage, it is probable that it took place in 1612; when perhaps one or two others of the five ships named in the charter of 1614 may also have been dispatched in pursuance of the information gained through the mediation of the States of Holland in the autumn of 1611. We may perhaps even specify that these were the "Nightingale," under Captain Thys Volkert-

EMBARKATION OF THE "PRINCESS AMELIA," AUGUST 16, 1647
(SHOWING WILLIAM KIEFT AND PETER STUYVESANT IN THE LEFT FOREGROUND)

sen, of Amsterdam, and the "Fortune," of Hoorn, under Captain Cornelius Jacobsen Mey, or May; but the time of these earliest undertakings cannot be stated with certainty.

Christiaensen and Block, returning in their chartered ship, brought with them, besides a cargo of peltries, two sons of chiefs, to whom were given the names of Valentine and Orson. The exhibition of these Indians contributed largely towards exciting an interest in America throughout the United Provinces. It is at least abundantly evident that the two friends themselves were satisfied with the result of their experiment as a commercial venture, for each now prepared to set out once more in command of a separate vessel—Christiaensen in the "Fortune" and Block in the "Tiger"—having also enlisted other "adventurers" or merchants to share in the enterprise. It may be supposed that these two vessels sailed early in 1613. As a result of his experiences on this trip Christiaensen came to the conclusion that instead of returning to Holland when the peltry season was over, it would be more advantageous to remain in America. He perceived that the trade in furs would obviously be very much advanced if a somewhat permanent settlement were established on some point or points along the great river. The Indians could thereby become accustomed to bringing their skins to a fixed locality as a market. The trade would thus acquire more regularity, and would receive greater stimulus by interesting a large number of tribes stretching over a more extended territory then could be reached by occasional and hurried visits to places chosen at random. Naturally he first selected as the most appropriate place for such a market the island of Manhattan. Several rude houses, built mainly of boards, and roofed with great strips of bark peeled from the trees around them, were constructed on the island under Christiaensen's supervision; and historians have attempted to identify the very spot. But although he provided himself with a place of abode on the island Christiaensen at the same time diligently explored the bays, creeks, and inlets of the immediate vicinity in every direction in order to effect negotiations with the natives. Taking his vessel, the "Fortune," he went up the river to the head of navigation. There above the site of Albany, near the junction of the Mohawk with the waters of the large river, was the place where several routes of Indian trade concentrated. The Mohawk Valley formed a natural highway between the east and west, between the Great Lakes and the Hudson; and down from the north, along Lake Champlain and Lake George, Indians came from points as distant as Quebec. So advantageous did this appear that when the winter was past Christiaensen immediately proceeded to erect a primitive fort in the vicinity. He selected for its site an island in the middle of the

river, probably not much more than a stockade or breastwork, surrounding the magazine or warehouse, an oblong building thirty-six feet long by twenty-six wide. Upon this first stronghold of the Dutch in New Netherland was bestowed the name of "Nassau" in honor of the Stadtholder of the Republic, Maurice, Count of Nassau; and about the same time his first name in the form of "Mauritius" was given to what was later to be called the "Hudson River," which before that time had been designated the River, or the Great River of the Mountains. Having completed this work Christiaensen departed to rejoin his trading port on Manhattan. Not long afterwards this bold navigator was, Wassenaer tells us, killed by Orson, one of the two Indians whom he had taken to Holland. We are not informed what provoked the murder, which was avenged on the spot by Christiaensen's companions. A serious misfortune also befell Adriaen Block, for his vessel, the "Tiger," lying at anchor in New York Bay, caught fire and was totally destroyed. When the opening of spring in 1614 found Christiaensen erecting a fort at the head of navigation, it heralded the completion by Block of the first vessel constructed in the port of New York. There was indeed an abundance of timber, but it was not in condition for being immediately applied to shipbuilding, and with insufficient and imperfect tools, the undertaking must have taxed the ingenuity as well as patience of captain and crew. The result of the labors of the winter and early spring was a shapely ship of sixteen tons burden, thirty-eight feet along the keel, forty-four and a half feet over all, and of eleven and a half feet beam. To this little craft was given the name of the "Onrust." Proving restless as the name of his new vessel Block could not idly wait the arrival of the ships of the Fatherland, but set out at once on a voyage of exploration, to which the "Onrust" was well adapted, since with her he could venture into waters which were inaccessible to larger vessels.

He first explored the waters of what was later to be called The Bronx, pushing boldly through the arduous channel of what we now call Hell Gate, a name which at that time designated the entire East River. He thus made his way, the first of European navigators into the broad expanse of Long Island Sound. He coasted along its northern shore; entered the inlet of New Haven, the Rodenberg or Red Hill of the Dutch; and sailed into the Connecticut, which, contrasting it with the salt and brackish water of the Hudson far into the interior, he called the Fresh Water River. The three-cornered island which Verrazano had seen and named, Block also saw, giving it his own name, which is the only appellation of his bestowal that has survived the changes of the years. He had by this time established the interesting fact that the long stretch of coast running almost directly east from the mouth of

the Hudson, apparently a part of the mainland, was in reality an island. On the return voyage to Manhattan he fell in with Christiaensen's ship, which was directing its course to Holland, probably to announce the news of its master's fate. It was commanded by one Cornelius Hendricksen, so that it is not unlikely that he was the son of Hendrick Christiaensen, if we are to judge from the prevailing custom of family names among the burgher class of Holland at that date. Block directed Hendricksen to take charge of the "Onrust" and to continue in her the series of discoveries which he had begun. He himself embarked in the "Fortune," and kept her on her course to Amsterdam, to report the result of his adventures. Besides his own explorations Block had also in charge to report those made by Captain May, in the ship "Fortune," of Hoorn. The latter had been partly over the same ground, for his testimony is appealed to later in regard to the clayey appearance of the soil of Martha's Vineyard, called "texel" by the Dutch. But May had been busy on the south coast of Long Island while Block was in the Sound north of it, for on his authority its length is given by the historian De Laet as being twenty-five (Dutch) miles from Montauk Point, or "Visscher's Hoek" to the Bay of New York.

Trade in New Netherland—Block went before the authorities of The Hague to make known to them the facts he had discovered. In March of that very year, 1614, the States-General had published a decree in the form of a "General Charter for those who discover New Passages, Havens, Countries, or Places," the reward being a monopoly of trade in those countries, but only to the extent of making four voyages thither. A resolution was adopted to grant a charter to the association of merchants with whom Block had allied himself, and the document was issued, signed, and sealed on October 11, 1614. It is of peculiar interest because it first officially gave the name of New Netherland to this portion of the Republic. In New Netherland meanwhile a second fort had been erected. It has been supposed that such was built on Manhattan Island in the year 1615. Twenty years later the West India Company reminded the States-General in a memorial that "One or more little forts were built" under their High Mightinesses' jurisdiction, "even before the year 1614." But this declaration, like some other of their historical statements, admits of doubt. And while learned historians differ as to the fact whether any fort was erected on Manhattan before that constructed by Director Minuit in 1626, perhaps we are not far amiss in looking for the origin of the rumor that there was, in the very probable circumstance that Hendrick Christiaensen may have constructed breastworks or have surrounded his little hamlet with a stockade in anticipation of a visit from English forces. Neither on the Figurative

map, nor on what we may call Hendricksen's Map of 1616, do we notice any indication of a fort on Manhattan Island. But near the head of navigation there undoubtedly was one; and indeed so great appeared to be the necessity for a stronghold there that we find one succeeding another in rapid succession. Christiaensen's Fort Nassau, with Jacon Eelkens in command, remained "occupied steadily through three years," says De Laet, "and then fell into decay."

When the three years of exclusive trade to New Netherland conceded to the "United Netherland Company" had expired, the merchants who constituted it found it difficult to obtain a renewal of the privilege, for other merchants claimed the right to send ships thither. One company of adventurers, headed by a Hendrick Eelkens, possibly a relative of Jacob Eelkens, obtained permission to send a ship, the "Schilt," or Shield, from their port of Amsterdam to the North River, as the Mauritius River had become designated, to distinguish it from the South River, or the Delaware. In 1630 Captain Cornelius Jacobsen May was active, visiting scenes which he had explored six or seven years before. In the ship called in translation the "Glad Tidings" he had sailed up the James River in Virginia. May claimed to have made discoveries and there was a great rivalry of claims, and finally the West India Company was formed, the charter being signed and sealed on June 3, 1621. It was not until 1623, however, that the company was ready for complete organization, and not until 1626 was the first regular colonial government provided for New Netherland. The interval was filled up with a number of voyages of which some were for purposes of trade merely, while others were made in the interest of colonization.

Westchester and The Bronx were settled in the main partly by an overflow from the Dutch population of New Amsterdam, and partly by settlers who moved there from New England. In this connection reference should be made to an incident which occurred about this time and which is interesting also on other grounds. In the first place it gives evidence that the idea of colonization, for which there had been made such slight provision in the charter of the West India Company, was distinctly entertained and its importance intelligently appreciated by many men in Holland whose attention had been directed to this country; and in the second place because it connects the Hudson River and Manhattan Island with a neighboring colony, the advent of whose members to the shores of America is looked upon as the beginning of national history for the Republic of the United States. On February 20, 1620, a document was addressed to Maurice, Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Republic of the Netherlands. It was a petition from the directors of the "New Netherland Company." The company was still in existence and actively engaged in the trade to the Hudson, al-

though its charter had expired three years after January 1, 1615. The trade was open to all, and, as they remark in this paper, other associations and private merchants were also despatching vessels thither. There is not in their petition any trace of a desire to revive their monopoly. Another project was in their minds. Beyond a trading post they had conceived the idea of making the banks of the Hudson the seat of a regular colony. But it was not easy for Holland to colonize uninhabited districts in foreign lands. Much as has been said by some writers about the overcrowded condition of the United Provinces, we have to accept such statements with caution. There was ample space for all within the territories of the Seven Provinces. At any rate they were not a people inclined to leave the Fatherland permanently. Restlessly diligent in pursuing wealth or glory to the remotest parts of the earth, the sons of Holland ever cherished the expectation of spending their last days amid the early associations of home. So it will be seen that the first attempts of colonization in connection with New Netherland depended for the supply of colonists upon refugees who had found an asylum in free Holland from religious persecution in their own lands. These having been once transplanted, and not yet rooted to the soil, it seemed easier for them to make another change.

English Puritans in Holland—It happened, the petitioners informed the Prince, and through him the government, that there was "residing in Leyden a certain English preacher, versed in the Dutch language, who is well inclined to proceed thither to live," meaning New Netherland. What is more he was representative in this proposal of no less than four hundred families who would "accompany him thither both out of this country and England." Here was thus a golden opportunity for forming a colony: a thousand people at their doors, indebted to Holland for a home and freedom of worship during a dozen years, besides several hundred fellow-sufferers in England ready to join their brethren in this change of abode, and likely to be equally grateful for the favor accorded. Eagerly did the directors of the New Netherland Company recommend this project to the Prince, requesting that they be aided in transporting these families. They had themselves, as we learn elsewhere, made generous proposals to the English exiles; New England historians call them "large offers," and well they may, for the directors promised to give them free passage to America, and furnish every family with cattle. But there was danger to be apprehended on the high seas as well as after they should have landed on the distant shores, from the vindictive persecution of their own king; and hence the directors begged the Dutch government to take the enterprise under its protection and to allow two armed ships to accompany the expedition.

There is no mistaking who were this preacher and the people for whom he was authorized to speak. John Robinson and his flock had been living in Leyden from 1609, and thus from the first must have heard of the exploit of Henry Hudson which agitated commercial Holland. Their views of church government differed hopelessly from those favored by the dominant class in England and endorsed as well as enforced by the Crown; and king and prelates insisting on conformity thereto or banishment, or worse, the non-conformist band at Scrooby, in Nottinghamshire, led by their pastor, chose banishment, and being assured of tolerance and protection in Holland, where there were many of their way of thinking, they entered upon what later historians called their first "pilgrimage," and took up their abode in Amsterdam, in 1608. But in 1609 Robinson's flock found it more advantageous to remove to Leyden. Here they spent many peaceful years, though, being a country just recuperating from a sanguinary war, they were compelled in common with the citizens of the country to maintain a severe struggle for existence, and they sometimes speak of "hard" times. Yet it may be inferred that they were not destitute, for in 1611 they bought a large piece of ground with a spacious house upon it, for over three thousand dollars, which would represent much more than that amount today. The site of this house is now indicated by a stone in the front wall of the building occupying it at present, which records that "on this spot lived, taught and died John Robinson, 1611-1625." Believing in the independency of the congregation as distinguished from the Presbyterian system of both the Dutch and the Scotch churches, and objecting to worship in buildings that had formerly been devoted to Catholic services, Robinson himself could form no ecclesiastical affiliations with the church of the land, as the pastors of Scotch refugees had done; nor could his people be granted a sanctuary, as had been assigned to the Scotch, since the Protestants throughout Holland were using the abundant supply of such edifices built in Catholic times, which it was considered it would have been mere wantonness to destroy or leave vacant. The English exiles, on whom later American historians have bestowed the title of "Pilgrims," met for public worship in the spacious house they had purchased, which was also set apart for their pastor's residence; while about the extensive garden smaller buildings were erected for the use of a number of the poorer families. It is worth noting that on the same ground stands an almost similar institution, namely a home for indigent people belonging to the French or Walloon congregation —the descendants of exiles from France and Belgium.

While enjoying liberty to conduct their church government on the principles which they had adopted, and to exercise their worship in the

place and manner that their consciences could approve, there were some considerations which made Robinson and his flock wish for different surroundings. In the recent discussions in New England in regard to erecting a monument at Delfshaven to commemorate the departure thence of these Puritan exiles, those who opposed the scheme charged that the Hollanders did not treat them handsomely. But we cannot discover this about the causes of their leaving. They were English and the younger generation, it is supposed, were becoming fast amalgamated with the element around them. They were not far enough away from James I to altogether escape his annoyance, for although the Dutch government necessarily condemned him in harboring the refugees at all, it could not entirely break with the head of the only other great Protestant power, and thus at times it was compelled to give the appearance at least of heeding the remonstrancies of the English king. Again the refugees from Yorkshire could not much better bear the Presbyterian government of the Dutch Church than they could the English episcopacy; yet their children were growing up where they constantly saw this form exemplified, and they would thus not only be reconciled to it but might become identified with it. The new free principles of church policy for which Robinson and his co-religionists contended needed wide space and unmolested practice for their development. Early in their stay in Holland therefore they began to turn their eyes to America. Negotiations were attempted more than once with the London or the Plymouth Company. But their own countrymen could not be quite depended on, and their king least of all. Then their intentions were made known to the New Netherland Company, whose directors, as we have seen, met their advances cordially. When the matter, however, came before the States-General, they took a broader view of the situation. Here was not a mere colonizing scheme, an undertaking for enterprising Dutch merchants only. Important political questions were involved, which had not occurred to simple business men. Dutch statesmen, accustomed to take in a wide range, and to look far in advance, in their keen combat against overwhelming power, were not ignorant of the claims of the English, and how these might be favored in the future by the proposed action in the present. Argall had given practical exhibition of the temper of his nation towards the Dutch on Manhattan. That which in a few decades was to find its way into printed volumes was undoubtedly then abroad in diplomatic circles—namely, that on the strength of Hudson's nationality his discoveries properly belonged to England. It would therefore have been the height of impolicy to send as the first colonists to a section claimed by England some hundreds of families of English extraction and still speaking the English

tongue. Hence the States-General denied the petition of the directors of the New Netherland Company, and refused to allow the English families to proceed thither. Less than six months afterwards, on July 20, 1620, about half of the number of refugees dwelling at Leyden left that city, parted from their pastor and the remainder of their kinsfolk at Delfshaven, and sailed forth thence in the "Speedwell" on their journey to America. So two important elements, the English and the Dutch, are seen in the work of giving their contribution to New York and New England.

Walloons and the West India Company—Meanwhile in the spring of 1622 the West India Company was still awaiting the slow ingathering of its required capital and was therefore not yet fully organized. Application was made to the States of Holland by a number of families who desired transportation as colonists to New Netherland. It was referred to the West India Company and taken in hand by the Amsterdam Chamber, as doubtless its capital was fully subscribed before that of the other chambers. Moreover the families that had made this request were settled at Amsterdam, and there direct communication could be held with them. The same peculiarity attached to them which distinguished the people who had offered to form a colony in America in 1620. They too, like John Robinson and his compatriots, were exiles for conscience' sake, having been compelled to leave their homes in the Southern Provinces of the Netherlands, bordering on France. The inhabitants of the Southern Provinces of Belgium were designated by the name of Walloons, either on account of their Gallic origin, or of their proximity to France and the use of that language. The name refers to their Gallic origin. In transition from the Romance to the Teutonic tongues the "g" is often changed into "w"; even as guerre becomes "war," and Guillaume, "William." Gaulois would become Waalsch or Walloon. Being as the English refugees were, sojourners in a strange land, these Walloons were prepared to undertake a second removal, although the great majority of their compatriots felt quite at home in Holland, and became thoroughly identified with her institutions of Church and State. It appears possible that at first they hesitated to pass from Holland to regions to which Hollanders indeed were trading, but which, lying between the northern and southern limits of English patents, were a debateable land where no settlement might be secure. At least they applied to Sir Dudley Carleton to intervene for them with the authorities in England to obtain permission to settle in Virginia. Failing to arrive at any satisfactory arrangements in that quarter they had addressed themselves to the Provincial Legislature of Holland.

Arrangements were then made. For the transportation of these fifty

or sixty families there was provided by the Amsterdam Chamber of the West India Company a vessel of great size for that day, having more than three times the dimensions of the "Half-Moon", or a displacement of two hundred and sixty tons. It was appropriately christened the "New Netherland." Thirty of the Walloon families were placed upon her, and it was carefully planned in advance how these were to be distributed into various settlements. Some of them were to go to the South River, and Cornelius Jacobsen May, who was made captain of the "New Netherland," was appointed to be director or governor of the settlement there to be planted. But he was to have a general survey of the whole expedition and of the plantation in America. Proceeding first to the head of navigation on the Hudson he was to restore the former forts there or build a new one, and to leave in command Adrian Jorisz of Thienpont, or as some writers call him, Adriaen Jorisz Thienpont.

The history of Harlem and The Bronx and Westchester is a direct growth out of this first colonizing expedition to New Netherland. It left Amsterdam in March, 1623, or nearly a year after the application of the Walloon families had been laid before the States of Holland. It reached the mouth of the Hudson in May, and several incidents connected with its arrival, as well as facts just stated, have been preserved for us by the contemporary historian, Wassenaer. In the first place the "New Netherland" encountered a French vessel, upon an errand similar to her own, in the Upper Bay. The intruder was disposed of. An armed yacht, the "Mackarel," coming opportunely down the river from Fort Nassau, convoyed the stranger outside the bay well into the ocean. But it is said that the Frenchman tried to effect his object on the South or Delaware River; with the same result, however, for the Dutch traders there treated the would-be colonists of France with equal firmness. The "New Netherland," after the episode with the Frenchman, proceeded up the river, leaving then or later some of the Walloons upon Manhattan Island, eight men in all, according to the deposition of Catelina Trico. At any rate about this time a number of them must have settled at the "Waelenbogt" or Walloon Bay, the Wallabout of today, bearing testimony in this corrupt form to the presence of these earliest settlers in that portion of Long Island and the city of Brooklyn. Here, two years later, occurred an interesting event. A certain Simon Jansen de Rapallo or Rapalje, according to the Dutch spelling, having first settled in Staten Island, removed to the Walloon Bay, in the spring of 1625. When but a few months in this new home, on June 6, 1625, he became the father of the first female child of European parents born within the limits of New Netherland. It was long supposed that Sarah de Rapalje was the first white child born in New Netherland. But

the Labadist voyagers who photographed upon their written journal the manners and customs and people of New Amsterdam, and indeed of all New Netherland, as they were in 1679, have left the record that in this year they were introduced to one Jean Vigne, then about sixty-five years old, who was known to be the first child thus born. His birth, therefore, must have taken place in 1614 or 1615. His parents were from Valenciennes in France.

Settling Forts Amsterdam and Orange—Moving up the river to the head of navigation the uncommon size of the "New Netherland," as compared with the class of ships that ordinarily visited those parts, proved to be of some inconvenience. When opposite Esopus Creek, it was found necessary to lighten her by transferring a portion of her cargo to boats, and by this expedient she was enabled to work her way up as far as the Tawasentha. While this had been thought a good place for the small redoubt called Fort Nassau, when it was contemplated to build a regular fort another site was deemed preferable. And thus Fort Orange, scientifically constructed, with four angles, a few miles further to the north came to occupy the side of the present Albany. At the same time that the engineers and soldiers of the expedition began marking out the angles of the fortress and digging the trenches, the Walloon colonists put their spades into virgin soil and sowed their grain, so that when the fort was completed and Captain May, leaving Adriaen Jorisz in command, was about to betake himself to the quarter assigned for his special jurisdiction, the grain stood high and promising. We learn from Wassenaer that another fort or redoubt, called "Wilhelmus," was built on an island in the vicinity of Fort Orange by the name of "Prince's Island"; but it is difficult to identify this spot, although the suggestion offers itself whether it may not have been upon it that Christiaensen met his fate at the hands of the Indian Orson, whom he had brought with him to Europe and back again, and whether on that account it had got its name of "Murderer's Island," which it had formerly held. Eighteen families were left at Fort Orange, and besides Adriaen Jorisz, who as sea-captain, had occasion to make the voyage to Holland at certain intervals, one Daniel Kriekenbeeck, whose cognomen was abbreviated to "Beeck" or "Beck" in daily conversation, was appointed to command in his absence. The year had been an important one for Albany. Ere it was gone Captain May had already established himself on the South or Delaware River. He built a fort there also, for which he selected a spot on the Timmer's Kill, near the site of the present town of Gloucester in New Jersey, about four miles south of Philadelphia. Four couples that had been married at sea and eight men were appointed to remain there. The name borne

for nearly ten years by the redoubt on the banks of the upper Hudson was transferred to the stronghold on the Delaware, and there henceforth in history Fort Nassau would have to be looked for. It is related, but with rather slight grounds of probability, that during the same year a fort was built and a colony consisting of no more than two families and six men, established on the Freshwater or Connecticut River, where in 1633, Fort Good Hope was erected.

Thus the first colonies were established in New Netherland, but we need not suppose that the thirty families brought out by the first ship were the only ones to supply so many points. A few months after she sailed, or in June, 1623, the project upon which those who had despatched her were bent was pursued still further, and more of the Walloon families were brought over by an expedition consisting of no fewer than three ships at once—the "Orange Tree," the "Eagle," and the "Love." It is to be noted moreover that these vessels were sent, not by the Amsterdam Chamber alone, but by the West India Company as a whole. It was perfecting its arrangements and fast completing its organization; its capital was nearly all subscribed, and notices everywhere published that its books would soon be closed. Perhaps in honor of this event and in compliment to the company, the States-General granted a seal for New Netherland, as if to place it on a level with the provinces of the Republic. As it will be remembered, these United Provinces had all originally been separate suzerainties--duchies, counties, baronies, or lordships—and as such each had possessed his appropriate armorial bearings, which were still retained on their provincial seals. To New Netherland such armorial bearings were assigned, which was equivalent to making it a province, the seal representing a shield bearing a beaver, proper, over which was a count's coronet, surrounded by the words: "Sigillum Novi Belgii." A little later moreover the American province received a conspicuous share of attention in the literature of Holland; for in 1625 there was published in Leyden, by the famous house of Elsevier, De Laet's "Nieuee Wereldt, ofte Beschryvinghe van West Indien," a monumental work, the source to this day of much of our information concerning Hudson's exploit, the condition of the country and of the natives at the time of his visit, also of the subsequent explorations by Block, May, and Hendricksen. De Laet was one of the directors of the West India Company, and his book appears to have contributed greatly towards directing the attention of Hollanders to those regions in America of which that great corporation was just beginning to assume the charge.

The term of Captain May as director having expired in 1624, another director, appointed again for only one year, was sent out. This was

one William Verhulst. As no trace of him appears on or about Manhattan, while in the Delaware there was an island known for some time as Verhulsten Island, whereon stood a substantial trading-house of brick; it may be concluded that his jurisdiction, like May's, was mainly on the Delaware River. One event of note, that gave evidence of how thoroughly the idea of colonizing had taken root, marked his brief administration. This was the sending of over one hundred head of cattle to New Netherland by Peter Evertsen Hulft, one of the directors of the West India Company. The expedition consisted of three ships, furnished by himself, and an armed yacht provided by the Dutch government. The cattle were placed upon two of the ships. A special deck was constructed for their stalls, which were kept thickly sanded, and doubtless every other provision was made to secure that scrupulous cleanliness that still characterizes the stables of Holland. Beneath these decks large tanks were placed filled with a supply of water, while a sufficient quantity of fodder was stored on a separate ship, which contained also six families or forty-five persons as colonists. Of the one hundred and three head of cattle, beeves, hogs, and sheep, only two died on the passage. Arriving before Manhattan the precaution was taken to land them on Nooten Island, lest they should go astray and be lost in the forests. But there being some difficulty in properly watering them there, they were finally transferred to Manhattan Island. In a short time about twenty died, in consequence of grazing on some poisonous weeds. At the close of 1625 William Verhulst's term as director came to an end, and about the middle of December of that year Peter Minuit was invested with the title of Director General. Furnished with a staff of officers for a fully equipped colonial government, he embarked for Manhattan, where he arrived in May, 1626, and the regular colonial history of the State of New York, or of the then Province of New Netherland, began.

New York may be said to have had its origin in the pursuit of commerce. In Holland, a country that had won freedom from foreign interference and established a government of the people, there were few who sought a political freedom in foreign lands which they could not find at home. Since the Dutch Republic had been founded as a protest against foreign persecution, and consistently with that progress it had become the asylum of the persecuted in other lands. Adventure brought men to Virginia, writes an American author, politics and religion to New England, philanthropy to Georgia; but New York was founded by trade and for trade, and for nothing else. The settlement on the island of Manhattan was due to the active spirit of Dutch commerce. The early trading voyages were succeeded by permanent colonization. But

the purpose of the West India Company was the profit of the merchant rather than the more general aim of the statesman. It sought to secure wealth from the settlement rather than to create a new province for the advancement of social prosperity and political principles. By the time New Netherland was taking shape there were already a number of colonial governments established on North American soil. Virginia's permanent settlement dates from the year 1607, and after many vicissitudes it was at this time greatly prospering under the liberal rule of Sir George Yeardley. It was he who instituted the first colonial legislature, consisting of representatives from the people, which began its sessions in July, 1619, or a year before the English refugees, who were the forerunners of the Puritans of New England, left Leyden. In 1622 no fewer than four thousand souls occupied plantations along both banks of the James River, and after many Indian massacres of that year and the consequent wars, inducing many to return to England, there remained still a population of nearly twenty-five hundred. While Minuit governed New Netherland a charter was granted Lord Baltimore, embracing the territory that later became the State of Maryland, but the first colonists did not arrive until Van Twiller had succeeded to the directorship in 1634, and next year already beheld a popular assembly established among them, with religious toleration the keynote of their history from the very beginning. In New England, following 1620, there had been prepared by the circumstances of the times a plantation of men who might be expected to prove friendly to the settlers from Holland, so that in this distant quarter of the world, much mutual comfort could be derived from their comparatively close neighborhood. These were the Puritans at New Plymouth, still reminiscent of their sojourn in Holland, which at that time had developed more liberal institutions than were known elsewhere, and still receiving accessions to their numbers from the families left in Leyden when the "Speedwell" sailed away with the first adventurers. In these regions two other colonies found a home before Director Minuit's term had expired. Portsmouth and Dover had been established in 1623; and five years later John Endicott settled at Salem.

In 1630 religious intolerance had already sent back the brothers Browne for daring to adhere to the Church of England, but the year was marked also by a brighter event, the coming of Governor John Winthrop with seven hundred colonists, and the founding of the city of Boston. Finally in 1636, or one year before Van Twiller's régime was ended, the history of Rhode Island began with the colony established by Roger Williams at Providence—a monument to his own liberal spirit, and to advanced ideas that were to find America so congenial a

soil in later generations. It was almost half a century after Minuit's arrival before the Carolinas were colonized; and almost sixty years before William Penn established a refuge for Quakers in the State known by his name. Georgia originated just a century after the expiration of the term of the first Director-General of New Netherland, while the Dutch colony itself was the beginning of the States of Connecticut, Delaware, New Jersey, and New York.

Director Minuit embarked on the "Sea-Mew" on December 19, 1625. Detained by the ice in the broad harbor of the Y or in the Zuyder Zee, the vessel did not clear the Texel channel till January 9th, and on May 4, 1626, arrived at Manhattan Island. There had been two directors before Minuit, but the office was from that time forth to have important powers, and was thus distinguished by the superior title of Director-General, and he had his council on board ship with him, the council constituting also a court for the trial of offenses, though capital cases were reserved for the authorities at home. Although New Amsterdam was not incorporated as a city till 1655, the appointment of the colonial officers appears to have been modelled after the plan of the municipal government in Holland. In Dutch town government the Court of the Schepens or Scabini consisted of five, seven, nine, eleven or thirteen members, according to the size of the place, five being the least. When it is considered that the other officers were a secretary and a schout, or a schout-fiscal, the municipal form is borne out still more nearly completely. The secretary first met with is Isaac de Rasieres; the schout-fiscal was John Lampe. While so much of New Netherland centered at Manhattan Island the colonial government was practically a town government.

Purchase of Manhattan Island—The first act of the colonial government was the important transaction of securing the land to be acquired by purchase from its aboriginal owners. The act was an historic one, which in view of the later Titanic development of the island that on the occasion passed from one suzerainty to another, has greatly intrigued the human sense of contrast. The small sum paid not even in the ordinary currency but in terms of barter would indeed be a drop in the ocean compared with the wealth represented by Manhattan today. "Imagination, aided by the painter's brush, has brought the scene before the minds of later generations," writes one historian. "On the very edge of the land, low by the water, in a clearing of the primeval forest, stood the representatives of European civilization face to face with the 'untutored Indian'." The contact in many instances before had been ruinously destructive to the red man. Here was suppressed all consideration of the laws that were binding as between man and man

on the other side of the Atlantic. Might, in rude contempt of right, where ignorance knew not how to assert it nor weakness how to defend it, had trampled upon the very instincts of human nature in the savage breast. The citizens of a free republic, growing stronger every day by successful commerce with numerous tribes and nations—these would show an example of acknowledging rights where none could be asserted, and of dealing fairly with savages upon a desert island. We can see the glittering trinkets, brought from the ship nearby in chests, opened upon the shore, the eager eyes of Indian men and women watching the display of contents, each article still more wonderful than that which went before. An extent of territory which Minuit and his officers estimated at eleven thousand Dutch morgens, or more than twenty-two thousand acres, was definitely transferred, in some way doubtless mutually understood, as becoming henceforth the property of the strangers from Europe, ceded to them in due form, so that the Indian proprietors comprehended and appreciated that it passed out of their hands into those of the others, conveying to them an ownership as legitimate as had been their own. Exception has been taken to the inadequacy of the price paid; sixty guilders, or twenty-four dollars. Yet how was adequacy of price then to be determined? The honest Hollanders certainly could not be expected to have paid its present value, estimated at two thousand millions of dollars. And what would the Indians have cared for a hundred thousand florins, at which the Dutch valued a ton of gold? But, on the contrary, the glittering beads and baubles and brightly colored cloths, great quantities of which could have been obtained in that day for sixty florins, filled the minds of the simple Indians with delight. These would represent untold wealth to them by reason of the attractiveness of the articles, and a more than adequate price for an island, small in the midst of the vast regions over which they were free to roam and hunt. Of this purchase, so unique and rare an episode in the history of American colonization, there fortunately exists unassailable proof. On July 27, 1626, a vessel named the "Arms of Amsterdam" arrived at Manhattan Island. She bore as passenger Isaac de Rasieres, the secretary of the Colonial Government, and had for her captain Adriaen Jorisz, who in 1623 accompanied Captain May, and was left in charge of the colony at Fort Orange. On the 23d of September the vessel was ready to sail again for the Fatherland with a valuable cargo of furs and logs of timber, soon to be tested in Holland for its shipbuilding qualities. But more than that she carried the official announcement of the purchase of Manhattan Island, addressed to the "Assembly of the XIX" of the West India Company, in session at Amsterdam, for the first six years of the charter were not yet passed. The

nineteenth member, representing the States-General at this session, was Peter Jans Schaghen, Councilor and Magistrate of the city of Alkmar, in North Holland, and deputy in the States-General from the States of Holland and West Friesland. While in duty bound to report the proceedings of the Assembly of the XIX to the august body who had delegated him, it would scarcely seem likely that he was required to send a report every day. It is more probable that after the adjustment of the former he would render an account of its affairs in person at a regular session of the States-General. But on November 4, 1626, so interesting an event occurred that he did not wait to report it in person. "The Arms of Amsterdam" had arrived from New Netherland and the announcement of the purchase had been presented to the Assembly. Thereupon, on the next day, Schaghen addressed to the States-General, in session at The Hague, the following historic letter:

High Mighty Sirs:

Here arrived yesterday the ship "The Arms of Amsterdam" which sailed from New Netherland out of the Mauritius River on September 23; they report that our people there are of good courage and live peaceably. Their women also have borne children there; they have bought the island Manhattes from the wild men for the value of sixty guilders; is 11,000 morgens in extent. They sowed all their grain in the middle of May, and harvested it the middle of August. Thereof being samples of summer grain, such as wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, canary seed, small beans, and flax. The cargo of the aforesaid ship is: 7246 beaver skins, 178 ½ otter skins, 675 otter skins, 48 mink skins, 36 wild-cat (lynx) skins, 33 minks, 34 rat skins. Many logs of oak and nutwood. Herewith, be ye High Mighty Sirs, commended to the Almighty's grace, In Amsterdam, November 5, Ao. 1626.

Your High Mighty's Obedient,

P. SCHAGHEN.

And so the island of Manhattan came into the possession of the white men who were to build on it to such purpose and overrun the surface of the great continent.

Negotiations between New Netherland and the English colonies were soon inaugurated. The Indians occupying the territory lying between the Dutch and the Pilgrims, who traded their furs to representatives of both settlements, soon made them aware of one another's exact positions. Minuit was the first to address letters to Governor William Bradford, conveying greetings. But from the first a presage of trouble was thrown into the intercourse. Bradford, receiving Minuit's letters written in French and Dutch, early in March, 1627, replied on March 29th. He acknowledged the indebtedness incurred and the gratitude felt by the Pilgrims towards the Netherlanders for the "good and courteous entreaty" which they had found in their country, "having lived there many years with freedom and good content." But at the same

PETER STUYVESANT'S TOMB, SAINT MARK'S CHURCH, NEW YORK CITY
Courtesy of the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society

time he reminded the Dutch that the region where they had settled was England's by first right, offering indeed no interference on his part, but warning them against the possible assertion of that right on the part of the Virginians, or by vessels from England engaged in the fisheries on the American coast. Director Minuit hastened to assure the governor of New Plymouth Colony that there was no doubt in his own mind or in that of his countrymen as to their right to settle in New Netherland. These letters had been carried back and forth by the hands of friendly Indians. But when Minuit's last missive, sent in May, had received no reply by August, on the 9th of that month he sent the captain of a vessel then in port to carry a third communication to Governor Bradford. This was John Jacobsen, of the island of Wieringen, in the Zuyder Zee. He sailed with his ship the "Drie Koningen," or the Three Kings, into Buzzard's Bay, and landing at a point then called Manomet, now Monument Village, in the town of Sandwich he proceeded on foot to Plymouth. He was well received by Bradford, and sent back with a request for a still more formal delegation, to consist of a person in authority at Fort Amsterdam, with whom negotiations could be effected of an important nature. Director Minuit readily fell in with this request and selected for the mission the Provincial Secretary, who may be regarded as the next in command under him. The ship "Nassau," freighted with merchandise both for trading and for presentation to the Governor, was placed at his disposal and a party of soldiers with a trumpeter was sent as a guard of honor. The "Nassau" proceeded to Manomet, whence De Rasieres sent word to Bradford that he had arrived at this point, but naively remarking that he could not follow Captain Jacobsen's example and walk all the remainder of the journey. "I have not gone so far this three or four years" he added, "wherefore I fear my feet will fail me." A boat was accordingly sent up a creek falling into Cape Cod Bay from the south, whose head waters reached to within four or five miles of Manomet on the other side of the isthmus. To this short distance De Rasieres did not object, and embarking in the boat, he reached New Plymouth in due season, "honorably attended with a noise of trumpets." The principal result of these personal negotiations, besides cementing the bonds of friendship and encouraging commerce between the two colonies, was the sale to the English settlers of a quantity of wampum, and the recommendation of its use in trading with the natives. The English soon found great advantages flowing from their adoption of this practical advice.

Life in New Netherland—A letter written about this time by the Rev. Jonas Michaelius, the first clergyman to settle in Manhattan, and addressed to a minister in Amsterdam, gives us an interesting picture of

everyday life in the new colony and of the character of a sea voyage at that time. The voyage from Holland to New Netherland was prolonged by reason of the roundabout course pursued by way of the Canary Islands and the West Indies. Leaving Amsterdam on January 24 the ship which conveyed Michaelius and his family did not arrive at Manhattan till April 7th; and the journey was marked by the endurance of the most disagreeable hardships. The captain was often intoxicated. He would not listen to complaints when he was in this condition, nor would he remedy matters when he was sober. The minister's family, consisting of his wife, two little girls, and a boy, were subjected to great deprivations. "Our fare in the ship was very poor and scanty, so that my blessed wife and children, not eating with us in the cabin, had a worse lot than the sailors themselves." Even when they were ill other than with seasickness, from which they did not long suffer, no better fate was provided for them, because of the captain's culpable neglect of his duties. Indeed, as a result, seven weeks after landing, the worthy lady died from the effects of this dreadful experience. These facts are instructive; if a minister's family was reduced to endure such treatment on board of a ship, what must have been the experience of the ordinary emigrants? Hence it must have required courage to undertake the settling of colonies in distant America, the test of endurance beginning even before arriving. On land everything was rude, tentative, in short, primitive and therefore imperfect. The privations were necessarily numerous and distressing. For daily food there was little variation from a diet of "beans and gray peas," unpalatable and not very strengthening, so that those in delicate health had little hope of gaining vigor. There was a scarcity of horses and cattle, and therefore much land which might otherwise have yielded abundance of wheat for bread was left uncultivated. Milk was not to be obtained from the farmers because there was not enough for their own use, while butter and cheese were equally unattainable luxuries. The best that could be done was to purchase, at exorbitant prices, ships' stores as vessels came into port. Nevertheless the little colony with all its hardships was very industrious. The farmers were exerting themselves to the utmost to draw from the long-neglected soil the staples of life, but their cry was for more farm laborers. More timber was cut than the vessels could carry to the home country. Brick-making and potash-burning were tried, but without success. A sawmill was constructed to take its place by the side of the rude grist-mill worked by horse-power. Preparations were also made for the manufacture of salt by evaporation. But one signal achievement of this earliest colonial industry was accomplished in 1630. There being a superabundance of timber it occurred to two Walloon shipbuilders to utilize it in the colony intead of sending

it to Holland. A practical exhibition of the excellence of the wood and the remarkable length of the beams that could be obtained from the trees in this vicinity would be given if these were constructed into a vessel larger than any that then floated the seas. Director Minuit was speedily won over to the scheme and encouraged it, pledging the funds of the company for its execution. Parties of men scoured the woods, even to the vicinity of Fort Orange, encamping in the forests for weeks at a time, cutting timber for the great ship. As a result there was launched in the harbor of New York in 1630 a vessel larger than any that had heretofore been produced in the shipyards of Holland or Zeeland; being of twelve hundred tons burden according to some authorities, and eight hundred according to others. It was christened the "New Netherland." In the meantime the thirty houses first built along the North River shore must have been increased in number and improved in manner of construction. In 1628 Wassenaer informs us there was a population of two hundred and seventy souls; but all New Netherland was then concentrated at Fort Amsterdam. Troubles between the Indian tribes near Fort Orange, in the course of which several Dutch settlers had lost their lives through imprudent and unwarranted interference, had induced the careful Minuit to order all the families residing there to come to Manhattan, leaving only a garrison of men; while for another reason the colonists on the Delaware were ordered to abandon Fort Nassau, and likewise to make their homes on Manhattan.

Privileges and Exemptions—The meagre number of inhabitants at New Amsterdam was something of a contrast to the four thousand people on the banks of the James River in 1622, and the seven hundred arriving in a single group under Winthrop at Boston in 1630. It was manifestly difficult to induce adventurers to leave Holland and the number of religious refugees was not so extensive as to cause a constant emigration to New Netherland. It was therefore determined, in 1629, to put into operation a scheme which had been tried with success in Brazil, now passing into the possession of the West India Company. Discovered and exploited in the interest of Portugal, in 1500-1501, by Americus Vespucius, for about thirty years thereafter, Southey inform us, the country was apparently neglected. "It had then become of sufficient importance," he continues, "to obtain some consideration at court, and in order to forward its colonization the same plan was adopted which had succeeded so well in Madeira and the Azores, that of dividing it into hereditary captaincies, and granting them to such persons as were willing to embark adequate means in the adventure, with powers of jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, so extensive as to be in fact unlimited." In this description may be seen the model for the Patroonships of New Netherland. In

1629 the Assembly of the XIX, with the approbation of the States-General, published a Charter of Privileges and Exemptions. It addressed itself only to members of the company, even as the captaincies had been granted only to favorites at the Portuguese Court, but the restriction in the former case was a more reasonable one than the latter. "All such" of the directors, and possibly also of the shareholders, would "be acknowledged Patroons of New Netherland" who should "within the space of four years undertake to plant a colony there of fifty souls upward of fifteen years old." Population was therefore wisely made the *sine qua non.* Should that condition fail to be complied with within the allotted time, all privileges and exemptions and grants of land would at once cease and be forfeit. In consideration of the efforts to plant such colony, however, there would be given in absolute property sixteen miles of territory upon one side of any river in New Netherland, or eight miles on both sides, the extent back from the stream being left practically unlimited. For this land, title must be obtained from the aboriginal possessors by suitable purchase. When thus secured, and occupied by settlers sent thither at the expense of the patroon, all privileges of hunting and fishing were to remain in his hands, to be granted by him at will. Should cities be founded within territory so possessed, the patroon would have power and authority to establish officers and magistrates there; in which case his position would approximate to that of a feudal lord of the olden times. Within the bounds of his grant he might pursue agriculture to the furthest extent of his ability; all that the streams would yield of fish, the forests of timber, and the mountains of minerals were to be his own without restriction. But the products had to be sent to the Fatherland and almost all fruits and wares had first to be brought to Manhattan and there shipped away. Traffic might be engaged in from Florida to Newfoundland, "provided that they do again return with all such goods as they shall get in trade to the island of Manhattes." There was a strict prohibition placed on manufactures of any kind, for fear, it is to be presumed, that the industry of Holland might fail to have a market, and "pitch, tar, weed-ashes, wood, grain, fish, salt, quarry stone" had to be loaded on the company's ships only, at a fixed rate of charges. Lastly, the lucrative trade in furs had to be left wholly untouched by the patroons and their colonists; "beavers, otters, minks, and all sorts of peltry the company reserve to themselves." On the other hand, again, the favor of the company was to be extended so that the patroons and their settlers should be "free from customs, taxes, excise, imposts, or any other contributions for the space of ten years"; and they were to be protected and to the utmost defended by the troops and navies of the company "against all foreign and inland

wars and powers." A final article engaged the company "to finish the fort on the island of Manhattes without delay," which shows that the stronghold there was incomplete at that time.

It may thus be seen that the patroon system was a rather curious mixture of privileges and restrictions. The extent of the liberties enjoyed in many directions would only make the yoke of the prohibitions more galling; and here lay the real difficulty with the scheme, furnishing cause for endless contentions and eventual failure. Some writers trace this result, as well as the difficulties that grew out of the patroonships, to the fact that the system was an attempt to graft European feudalism upon American soil. This, however, would apply more correctly to the colonization of Maryland, concerning which Bancroft says: "To the proprietary was given the power of creating manors and courts baron, and of establishing a colonial aristocracy on the system of sub-infeudation. But feudal institutions could not be perpetuated in the lands of their origin, far less renew their youth in America. Sooner might the oldest oaks in Windsor Forest be transplanted across the Atlantic than antiquated social forms."

The Patroonships—Anyhow, if the idea was to inveigle the moneyed people in Holland with the attraction of feudal authority the scheme was a good deal of a failure. The advantages of the system for men of means who were not in possession of pedigrees or patrimonial estates, have been considered considerable by some. But the truth is that the attraction was not particularly to the Dutchmen of the time. Fewer than a score of persons with the adequate means engaged in the colonization enterprise. What weighed with them was the commercial advantage, and the rock on which the whole establishment suffered shipwreck was trade, too eagerly indulged in by the patroons, and too stringently prohibited by the company. The directors who hurriedly procured for themselves territories in America before they quite knew what the provisions of the charter were to be were more than disappointed when the true state of their case became known; and, as one of the later patroons asserted, the conditions themselves, instead of attracting rather discouraged people from becoming patroons. It is to be noted, however, that by a proviso of the charter Manhattan Island was exempted from this experiment in colonization, and only one of the estates of the patroon came in close proximity to it. The first to avail themselves of its privileges were two merchants of Amsterdam and directors of the company, Samuel Bloemaert and Samuel Godyn. Before the States-General had seen the document, even before it had received the final revision and approval of the Assembly of the XIX these men had sent agents to America to select lands and to buy them

from the Indians. When, therefore, in 1630, the sanction of the republican congress was obtained they were ready at once to appear before the colonial government with evidences of purchase and obtained a ratification of their grant. Their territory extended thirty-two miles along the Delaware River on the southwest bank, and sixteen miles on the northeast shore, both tracts having been bought within the year. From the two documents in facsimile it is learned that earnest efforts had been made also to obtain lands around Fort Orange, for Kiliaen Van Rensselaer, a pearl merchant of Amsterdam, and a director, through the officers in charge there, and agents were sent among the Indians to persuade the reluctant ones to part with their territory. As a result five or six Indian chiefs owning property along the Hudson extending several miles to the north and south of the fort, having first made a contract, appeared before the director and council at Fort Amsterdam, and formally ceded their lands. This was the beginning of the colony of Rensselaerswyck, the only one among the patroonships that proved to be a success. Ere this same year of 1630 was over a third proprietary appeared in the person of Michael Paauw, also a director, some of whose relatives had been burgomasters of Amsterdam. As he was himself lord or baron of Achtienhoven, a place in South Holland, it could not have been the opportunity of becoming a feudal lord that attracted him. His territory lay near Manhattan Island, including at first Hoboken-Hacking, the name indicating a site familiar to residents of New York. But in rapid succession there were added Staten Island and the intervening space between that and Hoboken called Ahasimus, now the site of Jersey City. Godyn and Bloemaert having given to their patent the name of "Swanendael" or Swan's Valley, Paauw bestowed upon his the more euphonious title of Pavonia, by translating into Latin his own name, which is the Dutch for peacock.

In this way before twelve months had passed all the patroonships that were created by the original charter had already been secured. The first difficulties sprang out of this rather unseemly haste. There appeared to be nothing left for the others except in unprotected regions far from either of the three forts. The directors had evidently taken advantage of their position in the Chamber of Amsterdam to anticipate all competitors from the other chambers. Naturally jealousies and unpleasant accusations arose between the members of the West India Company, which did not greatly advance the interests of New Netherland. The first compromise growing out of these troubles was in the form of a co-partnership in colonizing. Several merchants were admitted to a share in each of the colonies on the Delaware and at Fort Orange, the historian, De Laet, becoming one of the proprietors in both territor-

ies. It is worthy of notice also that while the chief proprietors of Swanendael became copartners for Rensselaerswyck, Van Rensselaer also became a copartner for Godyn and Bloemaert's patent.

Things did not turn out exactly according to plan. When the patroons really began to comply with the conditions imposed on them and sent colonizing parties to occupy the land confirmed to them, the trade in furs, the forbidden fruit, proved most attractive, while agriculture, which was the main object of the establishments of the patroonships, was comparatively neglected, because its returns were so small and slow compared with the profits that might be obtained from the sale of peltries. A conflict with the directors of the West India Company was therefore inevitable, and as a result the Assembly of the XIX seriously amended the charter of 1629, rescinding some of the most important exemptions. Van Rensselaer and the others thereupon appeared with a paper of complaints before the States-General, claiming that it was entirely illegal for the company to rescind what they had so recently granted, and that on the strength of the privileges promised the petitioners had fitted out expensive expeditions. It was urged too that the Swanendael colony had been exterminated by the Indians, because the company, contrary to its engagement, had no sufficient force in the vicinity, Fort Nassau having been abandoned. The principal result of this controversy seems to have been that the States-General examined the nature of these grants of land, leading them to conclude that they were excessive and burdened with other objectionable features. As Minuit, the director-general, had countenanced and confirmed them, they further exercised their stipulated authority over the governors in the service of the company, by ordering his recall. But perhaps there had been a too liberal interpretation of the privileges to be extended. Secretary de Rasieres had already been dismissed a few years before, having fallen into disgrace on account of these same factions, as Governor Bradford writes, and now, early in the year 1632, Minuit, accompanied by the schout-fiscal, Lampe, embarked for Holland, in the ship "Eendracht," and the administration of the first director-general came to a close.

Minuit's connection with the development of American colonization did not cease with his directorship of New Netherland. Among the ambitious views entertained by Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden was included a design of establishing a colonial empire in North America. When, about the year 1624, William Usselinx left Holland despairing of success in inducing the Dutch merchants and statesmen to adopt his plans of West Indian trade, he proceeded to Sweden and succeeded in interesting the talented king in his schemes. Gustavus granted a charter

to a New South Company, which was modeled after the Dutch West India Company, and was to include participants both in Sweden and Germany. But the king's active part in the Thirty Years' War prevented Swedish operations in American waters. After his death in the battle of Lutzen, in 1632, however, Chancellor Oxenstiern, under whom Sweden maintained the exalted position won by the "Lion of the North," prosecuted the king's ideas with regard to American trade and colonization, and under his auspices an expedition was sent out early in the year 1638 to establish a colony on the Delaware River. It was placed under the direction of Peter Minuit. A large tract of land was purchased from the Red Men on the west side of the river and defensive works begun, which were eventually designated by the name of Fort Christina. Having inaugurated this settlement and established an active trade in furs in defiance of the protests of William Kieft, Minuit returned to Europe, according to some authorities, while he is represented as dying at his post, at Fort Christina, in 1641.

Van Twiller and De Vries—Inasmuch as the troubles arising out of the aggressiveness of the patroons constituted the cause of the retirement of Peter Minuit, it is a little curious that his successor should have been so closely allied, both by blood and marriage, with Van Rensselaer, the most energetic of the patroons in pressing his privileges. Probably the interference of the States-General in dismissing their chief officer in New Netherland produced a reaction in the councils of the West India Company and placed the influence of the patroons once more in the ascendant. So it came about that Walter Van Twiller, one of the clerks in the company's offices in Amsterdam, was elevated to the position of Director-General of the Dutch province in North America. He is usually described as born at Nieuwerkerk, a village near Amsterdam. Van Twiller, it would appear, had been in New Netherland some years before his appointment to office. He was sent as agent to select a territory for his relative's patroonship, and for this purpose is supposed to have been here in 1629. It has also been stated that he remained for about a year and was ordered to act as a kind of spy upon the colonial government, it being due to his information that cause for dismissal was found against Minuit. Van Twiller's official connection with the history of New Netherland begins with his arrival as successor to Minuit in April, 1633, a year after Minuit's departure. He was accompanied by a force of one hundred and four soldiers. A month later Captain De Vries arrived. He was an active partner in the patroonship of Swanendael on the Delaware, and thus in close alliance with a number of the directors of the West India Company, but the beginning of his relations with the company had not been altogether agreeable. As far

back as 1624 there was lodged a complaint before the States-General against the West India Company on the part of a sea-captain and part owner of a vessel lying in the port of Hoorn and bound for New France. The West India Company had then newly entered upon its career of enterprise, and it imagined that here was an infringement of its charter privileges. Accordingly the captain was arrested at the instance of the company by the magistrates of Hoorn; but this resolute person was not to be so summarily dealt with. He at once served an attachment on the agents of the company, who were thereby compelled to send for instructions to the Assembly of the XIX. The captain went beyond this body to a still higher authority, and sent a petition for redress to the States-General, the result being that the States-General sent a communication to the West India people, showing that the vessel in question was not interfering with their rights, inasmuch as the fisheries of Canada were distinctly under the jurisdiction of France, and that it was owned or chartered by French merchants; and at the same time their High Mightinesses took occasion to rebuke the company for risking, at the very commencement of its operations, a quarrel with a friendly power. This formidable sea-captain was David Pieters, or David Pietersen De Vries. He had gained a victory over the powerful West India Company, but the inevitable delay in sailing was fatal to the projected enterprise, and it was necessarily abandoned, De Vries losing a large sum of money. When the patroons consented to receive partners in the management and profits of the colonies in America, the captain, instead of contributing capital, placed at the disposal of the patentees of Swanendael his skill and experience as a mariner and explorer. In February, 1632, he sailed with two ships to plant a colony on the Delaware, to succeed the one which the copartners had sent in 1630, but which had been massacred in the preceding year. He succeeded in conciliating the Indians, but no one ventured to settle in the vicinity of the doomed plantation, and the whale-fishery also furnishing an unsatisfactory return, De Vries sailed down the coast, paid a brief visit to Sir John Harvey, Governor of Virginia, at Jamestown, and on April 16, 1633, arrived in New York bay, to make the acquaintance of the new director-general.

A couple of days later, as De Vries was at dinner with Van Twiller, an English ship passed in between the Narrows and came to anchor before the fort. A boat put off for the shore and the vessel's errand was soon told. Her name was "William," sent out by a company of London merchants to carry on a trade in furs upon "Hudson's" river. There was significance in that very name; therein lay the claim which was stated in so many words, that Hudson's nationality gave to England all

the rights derived from his discovery. The person sent to communicate this mission, and to assert these rights, in the instance dealt with, was Jacob Eelkens. Honorably identified as he had been with the beginning of the history of New Netherland, he appears now in a less favorable light. Shortly before the arrival of the ship "New Netherland," in 1623, with the first Walloon families, Eelkens had seized the person of Seguin, or Sequin, an Indian chief, on one of his trading expeditions, in the course of which he had penetrated to the vicinity of the Connecticut. He demanded an exorbitant ransom of over a hundred fathoms of wampum for the release of Seguin. As a consequence, the Indians of that region became suspicious of the Dutch, a long time intervened before confidence was restored, and the fur trade suffered greatly. Hence Eelkens, who had so long commanded at Fort Nassau, was dismissed from the service of the West India Company, before Fort Orange was substituted for the former. The English, coveting a foothold in the territories about the Hudson, were not slow to avail themselves of the undoubted capacity and experience possessed by the disgraced Indian trader, while they rightly counted on his disaffection towards his previous employers as an important element in securing their ends. He stoutly maintained the right of the "William" to proceed up the river, and quoted the ideas of his new masters in regard to the English title and proprietorship based on Hudson's exploration. Van Twiller, with as much determination, repudiated those claims, and refused permission to the "William" to proceed. The river was not the "Hudson's River," but the "Mauritius"; all the surrounding regions owed allegiance to no other potentate than their High Mightinesses and the Prince of Orange as their Stadholder. In practical support of that declaration the Commander-in-chief of Fort Amsterdam ordered the Orange colors, or the Orange, White and Blue of the West India Company to be unfurled from the flagstaff of the fort and three shots to be fired in honor of the prince. Eelkens was not at all overawed by this display of authority; returning to his ship, the English ensign was run to the masthead, and three shots in defiance of Van Twiller and in honor of King Charles boomed over the water; the "William" weighing her anchor and sailing up the river.

Van Twiller was naturally indignant at the truculence of the Dutch renegade, and called on all the denizens of the fort to assemble on the river bank and drain a bumper of wine to the glory of their Prince and Fatherland. An appeal of this character to their patriotism was answered with enthusiasm by the large assemblage and with their eyes on the receding ship they drank to the confusion of their enemies and the success of their flag and country. However, De Vries, as the more

practical man, saw that this sort of thing would not do. The man-of-war which had conveyed De Vries to his seat of government was yet in port, and a force of a hundred soldiers was at his command. Why not dispatch the armed ship upon the errand of arrest? A few days afterwards an expedition was fitted out to carry out this project. The man-of-war was kept behind, however, and a pinnace, a caravel, and a boy, conveying a portion of the troops, were sent up the river to arrest Eelkens and bring back the English ship. The former commissary had already established himself upon the island in the river near Fort Orange and was trading successfully with the Indians. His previous intercourse with them was remembered, and his facility in dealing with them was of great service to his English employers. The settlers at Fort Orange sought to interfere with his transactions but they did so by beating the Indians who came to trade, instead of attacking Eelkens and his party. A large quantity of furs had already been collected when the soldiers arrived from Fort Amsterdam. They soon compelled Eelkens to desist, forced the English sailors to carry the peltries on board the "William" and convoyed the foreigner to Manhattan Island. Here Eelkens was made to give up his cargo and with his crew was sent back empty-handed to England.

The Title to New Netherland—The affair had the result of exciting anew the dispute as to the title to New Netherland. The owners of the "William" complained to the English government of the treatment their vessel had received and a claim for damages was transmitted to Holland by the Dutch ambassadors, and referred by the States-General to the West India Company. The latter defended the title of the Republic and sought to refute the arguments of the English, the question of damages depending upon this alone. Yet the company had already performed this same fruitless task hardly more than a year before, when the English had, on the strength of their claim to New Netherland, ventured upon a much more serious violation of international comity than that of which they then complained against the Dutch. The ship "Union," conveying Director Minuit to Holland, was driven by stress of weather to take refuge in the harbor of Plymouth. She was at once seized upon by the English authorities as coming from a region covered by grants of the crown to English subjects. Minuit hastened to London to inform the Dutch ambassadors of the outrage, and these appealed for redress directly to the king. Little sympathy was to be expected in such a quarter; insisting on royal prerogative to his own ruin in England, Charles I was not inclined to yield any of his sovereignity in America. The matter was referred for decision to the Privy Council, with the result that the ministers but reiterated and emphasized a claim

so frequently advanced before. However, in anticipation of this the Dutch ambassadors had urged upon the States-General the necessity of a clear statement of the Dutch title, which was accordingly prepared by the West India Company. This paper showed that there was no settlement by the English, nor any kind of occupation near the territories named till 1620; while the Dutch had been trading without interruption from 1610 to the year in which they were, and had built forts there. Referring moreover to the question of grants, there had always been an extensive region between 38 and 41 degrees north latitude, which had been distinctly left open, and New Netherland lay within these geographical limits. But lastly, and more conclusive than all, they advanced the argument that inasmuch as the inhabitants of those countries were freemen, and neither "his Britannic Majesty's" nor "your High Mightinesses' subjects," they were free to trade with whomsoever they pleased. They were for this reason also perfectly at liberty to sell their land as they had done to the Dutch, and to convey title thereto by such sale. Further it was contended that "his Majesty may likewise in all justice grant his subjects, by charter, the right to trade with any people, to the exclusion of all others, his subjects, as your High Mightinesses have a right to do with yours. But that it is directly contrary to all right and reason for one potentate to prevent the subjects of another to trade in countries whereof his people have not taken, nor obtained actual possession from the right owners, either by contract or purchase."

These arguments, however, prevailed little with men who had already made up their minds and who had decided that they wanted the land of the Hollanders and were going to press their claims against them. The Dutch ship was indeed released, because Charles did not wish at the time to provoke foreign quarrels when the contention with Parliament was already taking up a good deal of his energy. The release was made unwillingly and with the deliberate threat that the act of restoration was no warrant against similar interference in the future. For these reasons it was that the case of the "William" was actively pressed as a complaint against the Dutch. The West India Company on its side, while repeating the former arguments, sought to arrive at a practical and permanent solution of the question by the appointment of a commission to fix upon the exact boundaries between New England and New Netherland. In the expectation that this would be accomplished, they directed Van Twiller to buy large tracts of land on the Connecticut, for although this river had been discovered by a Dutchman, it was deemed safer to fortify the title of discovery by one of purchase. Therefore, in compliance with the company's orders, he sent an agent to the Connecticut River, in the course of the summer of 1633, to arrange

a purchase of land from the Indian owners. A large tract situated about sixty miles from Long Island Sound, including the site of the present city of Hartford, was thus secured, and another at its mouth, called Kieviet's Hoeck by the Dutch and Saybrook Point by the English. A redoubt, to which was given the name of "Good Hope," was built near the site of Hartford, and the arms of the States-General affixed to a tree at Kieviet's Hoeck. But it seemed as if these honorable measures to secure formal possession only provoked the English colonists instead of acting as a restraint on their encroachments.

A vessel belonging to the New Plymouth settlers, having brought the news from Manhattan of the Dutch activities in the Connecticut valley, Governor Winslow and Governor Bradford at once proceeded to Boston to see what the two colonies combined could do to circumvent the Dutch, proposing among other things to erect a trading-house upon the very land which the latter had purchased; but Governor Winslow refused to participate in the scheme. He felt uncertain whether the patent of Massachusetts permitted an extension of trade to Connecticut, and he knew that the territory had been conveyed by royal grant to the Earl of Warwick. In view of this, while taking no active part against Van Twiller, he addressed a letter to him. The King of England, the Puritan governor wrote, had granted the river and country of Connecticut to his own subjects. A courteous reply was returned on the part of the director-general, bidding the English colonists to forbear entering into disputes about territory, before the English and Dutch governments should arrive at some understanding regarding boundaries; and though no Puritan himself he inculcated the Christian duty of living together as good neighbors in "these heathenish countries." The commentary of the settlers at New Plymouth upon this exhortation was an immediate preparation for occupying the Dutch territory. A house was constructed and placed in sections upon a large boat and a number of men under the command of William Holmes were ordered to convey the boat to a position above Fort Good Hope. As the expedition passed the fort they were challenged by the Dutch garrison and the two pieces of ordnance upon the walls were leveled against the intruders. The English kept on their way, however, and the threat was not fulfilled, as it was forbidden to the West India Company to employ its forces against the representatives of a nation with whom the Republic was at peace. Van Twiller, however, when he learned of the circumstances, addressed a formal protest to Holmes, which was as little heeded as the challenge from the fort. The house was placed some miles above Good Hope, and thus was founded the town of Windsor, in Connecticut. The example of the Plymouth colonists was not lost upon the settlers of

Massachusetts, in spite of Governor Winthrop's previous abstention from any positive move. An exploring party having reported upon the excellence of the territory about the Connecticut, families from Watertown, Roxbury, Dorchester, and Newton, exhorted to the enterprise by sermons of their clergy, crossed the intervening wilderness and settled on the banks of the river. Later, John Winthrop, the son of the governor, led a party to the mouth of the Connecticut, tore down the arms of the States-General at Kieviet's Hoeck, and founded Saybrook. Van Twiller was in a difficult situation; he could not use force against Englishmen without danger of compromising the West India Company; yet these people were taking advantage of his helplessness, justifying their conduct on the ground of the illegal grants of a monarch who in other respects was already discrowned in their eyes, deserving no obedience. The director appealed to the Assembly of the XIX and advised its members to obtain permission from the States-General to employ their troops and ships against the English, but such permission was never transmitted to him, and doubtless was not even applied for. In view of all these circumstances, therefore, one act of Van Twiller's stands out in strong contrast to whatever features of a less favorable kind may be discovered in his character. When, a few years later, the colony at Saybrook, was massacred by the Pequods, and two English girls were carried away captives, the director at once sent out an expedition to recover them. By the promptness and address of the Dutch the captives were restored to their families.

Trouble with the Indians—In 1636, the Pequods fell upon the English settlers along the Connecticut, and a destructive war was waged against them by the Puritans. An Indian war was therefore a thing to be looked for in New Netherland. The treaty of Tawassgunshee stood as a perpetual and irrefragable barrier against a calamity of that sort in the valley of the upper Hudson. By an ill-judged interference with a dispute between the Mohawks and the Mohicans, a few Dutchmen under Kriekenbeeck had lost their lives there, but it reflected no dishonor whatever upon the Mohawks, who were a party to the peace of 1618. The Indians near the mouth of the Hudson, however, took no part in the council on the Tawasentha; indeed, they were distinctly hostile to the nations who had entered into it; and the war that seemed inevitable at length began, in all the horrors that characterized it in other portions of the country, under the administration of Director Kieft. But the originating cause dated back sixteen years and is to be traced to an incident that took place immediately after Peter Minuit's arrival, while isolated cases of trouble with the Indians marked also the period of Van Twiller's incumbency.

In 1626, when the fort was being constructed and the farm laborers were set at work upon the virgin soil, three men in the employ of Director Minuit—all, according to some writers, negroes—were one day plowing and clearing the land bordering on the pond or stream called the Kolk, or Collect. While they were thus busy an Indian, accompanied by his nephew, about twelve years of age, came to this secluded spot, carrying some beaver skins to the fort. The cupidity of the laborers was excited by the sight of the valuable peltry and they forthwith set upon the defenseless natives. The boy escaped, but his companion was slain. No punishment was meted out to the murderers, and it is doubtful if the murder ever came to the knowledge of the colonial authorities. but the nephew of the murdered man, true to his Indian traditions, vowed vengeance, and fulfilled his vow sixteen years later by a murder which became the signal for a general Indian war. It was also during Minuit's term that the massacre occurred at Swanendael, referred to above. As De Vries was leaving Holland in order to conduct a second party of settlers to that colony the news came that the first colonists had all been murdered by the Indians. When he reached the scene the details were told him by a friendly native. Gillis Hoosset had been placed in charge of affairs at Swanendael, and as an evidence of proprietorship the arms of the States-General, displayed on a piece of tin, were affixed to a tree. The shining metal attracted the attention of the Indians, and one of them made bold to take down the tin plate, and converted it into a tobacco pipe. Hoosset, conveying by means of signs the impropriety of the act, was understood by the natives to express a much more violent resentment than he felt; they imagined that he demanded the death of the offender and acted accordingly. But his execution aroused the vengeance of the tribe to which he belonged and it was visited upon the strangers who were supposed to have demanded the sacrifice of their relative. While the colonists to the number of thirty were at work in the fields and woods at some distance from one another, the Indians despatched them all. Another party surprised Hoosset and a sick man who had remained in the house and killed them also. De Vries on his arrival refrained from measures of retaliation, as the blame was hard to fix, and it would appear that his moderation gained for him the confidence of the aborigines, displayed on various occasions. These occurrences made a sore spot in memories and brought about a state in which later violence was to be apprehended.

Four years of Van Twiller's administration had not given the West India Company any reason to change the opinion regarding the unprofitableness of New Netherland as a commercial venture; and although this was a shorter term than that of any of the other directors

it was resolved in 1637 to recall him. There appeared to be good cause for adopting this measure for he had not developed very acceptable characteristics as the governor of the province. About a year after Van Twiller's arrival there occurred a quarrel between him and Dominie Bogardus. From all that appears in the conduct of Dominie Bogardus subsequently, he was a person of violent temper and enemies accused him of too great fondness for wine. In this respect Van Twiller was more than his match and it seems to be no injustice to him to conclude that his morality was none of the chastest. So fierce became the enmity between the two men that it was made a basis of complaint against the director in Holland. Other evidence of personal unfitness accumulated as time went on. The pages of De Vries' volume contain many accounts of drunken quarrels, originating in orgies which the director either himself promoted or in which at least he took part. It was inevitable that his administration of the colony should be unfavorably affected, much to the interests of the West India Company; and to make matters still worse, while the company's farms yielded no satisfactory returns, on the other hand those which had come into the possession of Van Twiller and his partners were signally prosperous. These men, evidently profiting by their advantageous situation as the agents of the company, had liberally provided themselves with extensive grants of land in the vicinity of Manhattan Island. The director secured for himself the island of Pagganck, or Nut Island, since called Governor's from this very circumstance; while several islands in the Hell-gate, now East River, were also added to his estates. This and a great deal more reached the ears of the company and the assembly in Holland. The records of the States-General indicate that the directors sent to Van Twiller the letter of recall some time after accusations had been made against him; for on September 2, 1637, application was made to confirm the appointment and sign the commission of his successor, William Kieft, who was Director-General from 1638 to 1647.

Earliest Settlers in The Bronx—It was during the administration of Director-General Kieft that Jonas Bronck settled near the mouth of the river that was later to bear his name. In 1639 when we read of the first purchase of land in what was later to be The Bronx Borough the flats of Harlem had already been occupied as bouweries or farms by the Dutch settlers and it seems entirely probable that some of the farmers had already crossed the river and occupied new land "upon the Maine." In the year 1640 a second purchase was made of lands to the eastward of Keskeskeck; and in 1641, Jonas Bronck, whose name was written also as Bronk and Brunk, made a purchase of five hundred acres of land between the Harlem and the Aquahung rivers.

SIGNING OF THE FIRST DEED RECORDED IN NEW YORK CITY, OCTOBER 12, 1654
(REPRODUCED FROM THE HISTORICAL PAINTING BY JOHN WARD DUNSMORE)

The latter soon lost its Indian name and became known after the proprietor as Bronk's River. Today "The Bronx," a natural derivative from "Bronk's," is the name borne by the borough.

Jonas Bronck was a Dane or Swede, who had taken up his residence in Amsterdam, Holland, where he married Antonia Slagboom. Learning of the fertility of the soil of New Netherland and filled with the spirit of adventure which permeated all classes in that age, he embarked with his family, his servants, his cattle, and his other property for America and arrived in New Amsterdam in July, 1639. That Bronck had in mind to avail himself of the land newly purchased by the company on the mainland and desired to avail himself of it is indicated in the records. One of the documents bearing on transactions made by him contains a lease made on July 21, 1639, by Jonas Bronck to Peter Andriessen and Lourent Dayts, by which the former agrees to show to the lessees a certain lot,

> in which lot aforesaid they may cultivate tobacco and maize, upon the express condition that they shall clear and cultivate every two years a fresh spot for the raising their tobacco and maize, and then the spot which they cultivated before shall return again to Mr. Bronck aforesaid, to dispose of according to pleasure.

The lessees had the use of each field they cleared for three years, but at the end of that time it became once more at the disposal of the proprietor. The lease was made by Secretary Van Tienhoven. It was a case of what we should call today working on shares, by which the owner of the land gradually got it cleared without expense to himself, while the leases were entitled to the usufruct. On August 15 of the same year Bronck also leased land on similar terms to Cornelius Jacobsen and John Jacobsen. Bronck bought his land from two Indian sachems, Ranaque and Tackamuck. He erected a stone house covered with tiles; barns, barracks, and a tobacco house; and, being of a religious bent of mind, named his house "Emmaus." The building was situated not far from the present Harlem River station of the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad, on Lincoln Avenue and East 132nd Street.

Bronck had barely taken up his residence at Emmaus before the Indian war broke out, which lasted with intervals for three years, during which the Weckquaesgeeks destroyed all the bouweries and houses in that section as well as in others. In the year 1643, Jonas Bronck, who was the first recorded white settler in Westchester County, died; and his estate was administrated by two of his friends in Harlem, Dominie Everardus Bogardus, the bitter opponent of Van Twiller, the husband also of the Annetje Jans, who figures prominently in Manhattan history, and Jochim Petersen Keyser. From the inventory of the estate it would appear that Bronck was, besides being a man of means, also

something of a scholar. A silver table service is enumerated, linen napkins, six linen shirts, and a number of books. The books were in the main of a religious or theological character, full of the sort of polemical discussion dear to the heart of the reader and writer of that age, and were in several languages, so that it may be presumed that the proprietor was something of a linguist. Peter Bronck, the son of Jonas Bronck, afterwards settled near Albany, where his descendants long endured. The widow remarried, her second husband being Arendt Van Corlaer, sheriff of Rensselaerswyck, who sold "Brouncksland" to Jacob Jans Stoll. After passing through various hands the land came into the possession of Samuel Edsall about 1668-1670, who sold it in 1670 to Richard and Lewis Morris, merchants of Barbadoes. Captain Richard Morris was already located in New York and bought the land and took possession of it in behalf of his brother, Colonel Lewis Morris, as well as for himself. The bounds of "Brounckland" are hard to determine. The northern line probably did not extend beyond 150th Street. To the east the land extended to Bungay Creek; and in the southern direction, to the Harlem River and Bronx Kills. The site of Jonas Bronck's house, "Emmaus," became that of Colonel Lewis Morris, and later of the manor house.

The next settler within the borough was Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, who had gone from England to Boston in 1634. In Boston her peculiar religious notions and outspoken criticisms rendered her obnoxious to the theocratic authorities of that colony, so that she was banished from it shortly after Roger Williams had suffered a like fate at Salem. She went to Williams' new settlement at Rhode Island and founded Portsmouth and Newport; but not finding Rhode Island to her liking, she again migrated with her husband, family, and belongings to the Dutch colony of New Netherland, and settled in 1643, in what is known as Pelham's Neck. The Dutch called the Neck after her, Annes Hoeck, or Ann's Neck; the stream near which her house stood was called Hutchinson's River, a name that it has continued to bear. In the Indian war which broke out again after the signing of the treaty at Bronck's house, the savages made a descent upon her farm and wiped it out of existence, at the same time killing her and all her family and servants, except a granddaughter, who was carried into captivity, but who was afterwards restored, her two years captivity among the savages having converted her into a savage also, and she had no desire to leave the friends she had made among them.

In September, 1642, John Throckmorton, or Throgmorton, with thirty-five families, applied to the Dutch authorities for permission to occupy the Vriedelandt, or "land of peace," as it was called by the Dutch, on

MAP OF ORIGINAL GRANT TO LEWIS MORRIS, SR.

the shore of the Sound. This permission having been granted, in October, 1642, the colonists settled on the long neck lying south of Eastchester Bay, which, after the leader of the colonists, was called Throgmorton's Neck, later contracted into Throgg's Neck, and sometimes known as Frog's Neck. Director-General Kieft gave them a patent, or ground brief, for the land in July, 1643. The colony was composed of Quakers and other malcontents from the New England colonies, who found the religious intolerance of these colonies unbearable, and as a result, sought freedom among the Dutch. Roger Williams, the founder of Rhode Island, was a personal friend of Throckmorton; and it is known he was in New Amsterdam in the winter of 1642-1643, sailing from New Amsterdam for Europe, whence he returned later with the famous charter for his colonies in Rhode Island. It is more than likely that he visited Throgg's Neck, as he was deeply interested in the success of his friend, Throckmorton, and his colony in the Vriedelandt. The colony thrived; but the Indian raiders who had destroyed the Hutchinson family attacked the Vriedelandt colony and destroyed it also. Eighteen persons were massacred; but a passing boat fortunately landed at the neck at the time of the attack and the remainder of the settlers escaped in it. Before the war ended the whole section north of the Harlem River, as well as Long Island, became a wilderness, as those who escaped from the tomahawk of the savage left their bouweries and sought safety in the fort at New Amsterdam.

One of Throckmorton's companions at the Vriedelandt colony was Thomas Cornell, a native of Essex in England, who escaped at the time of the massacre. On July 26, 1646, he was granted by the Dutch authorities a patent to the land lying between "Brunk's Hill" and the creek, now called Pugsley's, which enters the mouth of Westchester Creek. The Indian name of the neck was Snakapins; but when Cornell settled on the land it took his name. He erected buildings and cultivated the land until again forced to vacate by Indian aggressions. After his two experiences, Cornell seems to have given up hope of establishing himself in New Netherland and returned to Portsmouth, Rhode Island, where he is recorded as being on a coroner's jury in 1653, and as commissioner of the town in 1654. His daughter, Sarah, who married Thomas Willett, on September 1, 1643, inherited the Neck, and it remained with her descendants for over a century and a half.

John Throckmorton did not return to his colony after the catastrophe which had overtaken it, but settled in New Jersey. On April 29, 1652, he petitioned Governor Stuyvesant for permission to dispose of the land; and in the following October he sold it to Augustine Hermans.

Shortly afterwards, Hermans sold fifty morgens of the land to Thomas Hunt, who, after the English occupation, received from Governor Nicholls a confirmatory grant, or patent, under date of December 4, 1667.

These events serve to mark the social movement that was going on in the small population, fighting for life and wellbeing on the tip of the great continent and warned by no vision of the unparalleled results that were to flow from their modest efforts. The events that took place in the territory that was later to bear the name of The Bronx and which was at that time the most southerly portion of that part of the mainland which was to be called Westchester County, were of course, part of the warp and woof of the larger history that was going forward in New Amsterdam and in New Netherland and indeed in all the new colonies on the northern continent. It is only by the use of our disentangling and abstracting faculty that we are able to separate the one from the other. We can only understand the history of The Bronx, by understanding also the history of New Netherland and New York. That is why in telling the one we have also to tell the other since they are notes in the same chord of harmony. The Bronx in its beginning was a mere expansion of New Amsterdam, like Harlem, and from that beginning to the present its story has been part of the story of New York.

Van Der Donck as Patroon—The four most prominent family names in the earliest history of The Bronx were these of Bronck, Hutchinson, Throgmorton and Van Der Donck. The first three names have been already referred to. The fourth name comes into notice as a result of the establishment of the system of patroons by the West India Company. The attractions held out by the company found a considerable number of takers, over six hundred patents being granted during the Dutch period. Jonkheer Adrien Van Der Donck first came to New Netherland as sheriff to Kiliaen Van Rensselaer, the diamond polisher and director of the West India Company, who was the greatest of the patroons. His arrival took place in 1641. He was a native of Breda, a graduate of the University of Leyden, and a lawyer by profession, the first to settle in New Netherland. He served for five years with Van Rensselaer, with whom he had many differences, and who accused him of dishonorable transactions. On October 22, 1645, Van Der Donck married Mary, the daughter of the Rev. Francis Doughty of Long Island, and soon afterwards, disgusted over his experience with Van Rensselaer, he withdrew from Beverwyck and settled in New Amsterdam. Van Der Donck desired to become a patroon himself; and being a man of education, as well as of wealth, he had little trouble in coming to terms with the West India Company.

This was made the more easy from the fact that the company was under obligations to him for services rendered, as well as for money loaned. He was obligated, however, to obtain deeds from the Indians for any lands taken from them, which had not already been purchased by the company.

The area of the tract selected by Van Der Donck extended north about eight miles from the mouth of Spuyten Duyvil Creek along the east bank of the Hudson, thence in an easterly direction to the Bronx River, which was the eastern boundary. The southern boundary ran from the eastern entrance of Spuyten Duyvil Creek east to the Bronx River; the southern boundary was Spuyten Duyvil Creek. The boundaries were about the same as those of the township of Yonkers as formed by the Legislature of 1788. The tract was called "Nepperhaem" in the deed; but was known popularly as "Colen Donck," that is Donck's colony, and sometimes as "De Jonkheer's," which latter by natural corruption became Yonkers, the "J" in Dutch being pronounced "Y." Van Der Donck would appear to have been attracted to the section by the fertility of the soil, its nearness to the fort at New Amsterdam and by the fact that there was a good running stream, the Nepperhan, which could be easily dammed so as to furnish power for the mills to be erected along its banks. From these mills the stream was called "De Zaag Kill" or "Saw Creek," or, as known in Yonkers later, the "Sawmill" River. The dams remained until 1892 when they were removed for sanitary reasons.

Considerable power and authority were given to the patroons and in some of them this delegated responsibility endowed them with an overwhelming sense and made them imagine themselves equal in status with the West India Company itself and independent of it. As a result there arose constant disputes between them and the governor. The governor usually did what he could to curtail the authority of the patroons and belittle their sense of their own importance and they on the other hand were apt to assume the attitude of defying his authority, and to complain that he was interfering in their property and business affairs. In these disputes the patroons were able to exert considerable pressure. Thus they were able to influence even the arbitrary-minded Director-General Stuyvesant who, after a protracted struggle with them and other prominent men, ultimately yielded their point as a result of which the Council of Nine was formed of which Van Der Donck was a member. Van Der Donck returned to Holland as the agent of the men opposed to the governor; and the fact that he had been imprisoned by Stuyvesant for contumacious conduct gave additional weight to his feeling against the governor. It would appear that the friends of

Stuyvesant in Holland were too strong for Van Der Donck and he became an object of suspicion to the authorities, who kept him under surveillance. Upon his attempting to return to the colony he was stopped, even after his family and property were aboard the vessel. His detention lasted until 1653. He wrote a history of New Netherland, but the part relating to the government was suppressed. In 1652 the University of Leyden conferred upon him the degree of "Doctor of Civil and Canon Law"; and the same year he received his patent for his patroonship from the States-General itself. The grant had been made in 1646. The delay of six years may have been caused either by his strenuous remonstrances against the governor, by which Van Der Donck became *persona non grata*, or by some difficulty in obtaining deeds from the Weckquaesgeeks and Manhattans, who had several villages on his tract.

Van Der Donck came back to New Amsterdam in 1653. He had sought permission from the company to practice his profession as a lawyer; but so distrustful were they of his ability to make trouble that they refused him any right to do so. All they would allow him was that he might give his opinion, if asked to do so. He returned to Holland and then came back to New Amsterdam, where he died in 1655. It would seem that he had never lived on his land; though that he purposed doing so would seem to be manifest by his purchase from the Indians of a tract of flat land for the laying out of a garden. The tract, called "Van Der Donck's Planting Ground," lies in the parade ground in Van Cortlandt Park, west of Tippett's Brook and the lake. This was also the site probably selected for his house. In accordance with the provisions of his grant, he established colonists upon his land, and these, in view of the Indian war of Kieft's administration, cultivated friendly relations with the Red Men, who still maintained their villages at Spuyten Duyvil and at the mouth of the Sawmill River. Van Der Donck likewise established a sawmill on the Nepperhan in 1649; but his death frustrated the plans he had drawn up for the development of his land. As to the family of the patroon we appear to have little that is reliable. His wife, Mary Doughty, may have built upon and cultivated the land and received some income from it. If there were any children their records have disappeared, though it is said there were Van Der Doncks on Long Island, but whether they were direct or collateral descendants is not known. His widow married Hugh O'Neale of Patuxent, Maryland, before the year 1666, and she went to live there in 1671.

We thus see that the names prominently associated with the settlement of the area in the region which at the present day bears the name

of The Bronx had become thus conspicuously associated during the central years of the seventeenth century. Jonas Bronck, Anne Hutchinson, John Throckmorton, Adrien Van Der Donck—all these names have endured with the southern part of Westchester County and the valley of The Bronx from those years to these. They have become identified with the locality. They have been fused in its history; they have been metamorphosed until the historian alone is able to recognize them in their later guise. But in the day of their bestowal they stood for real personalities, people who were as much founders and pioneers, foster-fathers and foster-mothers in the northern borough and the southern tip of the mainland as Block and Christiaensen and Minuit were Knickerbocker fathers in Manhattan. They are the first actors when the curtain lifts north of the Harlem and will ever remain the links between the modern and the aboriginal period.

CHAPTER IV

INTERCOURSE AND CONFLICT WITH THE INDIANS

With the activities of Jonas Bronck, Anne Hutchinson and their contemporaries on contiguous territory over the Harlem the history of what is now the territorial unit of The Bronx may be said to begin. But in those early days all was not as clear cut as it now appears. There was in reality no Bronx. There was not even a Westchester County. There was hardly an island of Manhattan. There were real delimitations. There were merely small and anxious groups of men and women posed uncertainly on tips of land here and there, near the sea over which they turned wistful glances towards their old European homes, and behind them a vast hinterland concerning which they knew very little, and in which they felt quite sure lurked perils of every kind. The island of Manhattan appeared in that early time a very different region from what it appears today. It was still largely forest land and merely to go from one end of it to the other called for a considerable measure of daring and perseverance. Localities that today appear to approach the southernmost tip of Manhattan appeared in those days to be far in the north country. Mid-Manhattan looked to the inhabitants of the wooden dwellings at what came to be called the Battery an almost unknown wilderness, as distant as Philadelphia or Providence appears to us today. People living in the valley of The Bronx could never have dreamt of a time when the locality they had made their home would be in common with the Battery merely parts of a great city. The land route to New Amsterdam appeared a formidable undertaking. That is why the early settlers kept close to the sea and the mouths of rivers. At least the water afforded a route, that, though long, was bereft of the infinity of obstacles and the hidden perils that clustered at every turn on land. ....

It was, as has already been said, during the term of office of Director-General William Kieft that what is now The Bronx began to be settled. Kieft arrived in New Amsterdam in March, 1638. It had for some time appeared to the directors of the West India Company that the lack of energy and experience of Director-General Van Twiller and his general incapacity made a change in the executive essential to the interests both of the Dutch colony and the company. A man of a different stamp was selected. There was a good deal that was dubious in the previous record of Kieft, but he had a reputation for energy and de-

cision and this recommended him as a fit man for rulership of New Netherland.

Kieft's Administration—The sparse population on Manhattan and its contiguous territory at the time had little to show to the new director. Fort Amsterdam was in a dilapidated condition and the guns were for the most part dismantled. The public buildings were moreover in need of repair, and all but one of the windmills was out of order. The company's bouweries were untenanted, and the cattle belonging to them had been scattered and appropriated, perhaps to a great extent by Van Twiller himself, whose farms at least were well stocked. A considerable portion of the other property of the company also appeared to have been transferred to private hands. It was difficult for the directors of the West India Company in Holland to give very particular attention to the fortunes of the New Netherland colony. In truth some of the directors began to consider it a rather troublesome portion of the territories under their administration, which included at this period a great many other possessions in North and South America and in Africa. While Van Twiller had been occupied in looking after his own interests the public interest had been neglected and the new director soon understood that he had a considerable undertaking on his hands in setting things right. The company's employees had been trading in furs on their own account; smuggling was common; guns and ammunition had been furnished to the Indians, the town was in a disorderly state, soldiers were insubordinate and there were rioting and drunkenness and immorality. Against the chief of these irregularities Kieft enacted a number of ordinances. A regular guard or police was established and he gave evident indications that he intended to exercise the authority of his office with a good deal of energy.

At this period the States-General began to be acutely apprehensive of future trouble with the New England settlements as well as with those of the Swedes, as it appeared likely that political complications would arise out of the relations of the home governments. Following 1630 there had been a downward tendency in the fortunes of the West India Company. The rich galleons of Spain no longer supplied wealth to its coffers, and the subsidies promised in its charter were largely in arrear. So incapable indeed appeared the company of successfully maintaining even its territory along the North River that a project was set on foot by the States-General to take control, for political purposes, of the entire province of New Netherland, and to obtain the relinquishment by the company of its rights in the colony. To this application the company, having a valuable independent charter, refused to agree. The condition of the province was, however, so unsatisfactory that it

was deemed necessary to make some changes of policy so as to invite a greater volume of immigration. The Amsterdam Chamber consequently established a new system; and by an ordinance of 1638 yielded in part its monopoly of trade, and sent special orders to the director to make liberal arrangements with such new colonists as might arrive and desire to acquire land. The director coöperated in the matter as he was advised and the concessions were attended with excellent results. New settlers arrived in numbers, not only from Europe, but from Virginia and New England.

At this time a great many grants were made to settlers on the island of Manhattan and in the surrounding districts. The bouweries were put in order, stocked with cattle and leased; and more than thirty farms belonging to the West India Company came under active cultivation. Andreas Hudde received a grant of a hundred morgens just south of the Harlem at the northeast end of the island of Manhattan, as did also Van Twiller, on the North River strand, at Sapohanican. Hudde was to pay one-tenth of the increase of the stock at the end of ten years and a pair of capons annually. In May, 1638, Abraham Isaacksen Planck received a grant for Paulus Hoeck, east of Ahasimus, on the western side of the North River. Among other leases of the company's bouweries was one to the insatiable Van Twiller in 1639, who was busy letting out his goats and cows. The company's farm at Pavonia was let to John Evertsen Bout. The secretary, Van Tienhoven, leased a bouwery opposite La Montague's plantation of Vredendael, subsequently called Greenwich Village; and we find in the records many other leases and deeds of outlying farms and plantations. Among others a tract was granted to the Englishmen, George Holmes and Thomas Hall, tobacco planters, extending from Deutel or Turtle Bay to the Hill of Schepmoes. A large tract was also conveyed to John Jansen Van Salee near Coneyn, later known as Coney Island.

Dutch and English Meet—Dutch rule went well over the Harlem and into the Connecticut Valley and was being spasmodically settled, so that the borderland between the English and the Dutch began to be lessened and the two peoples to come into contact. The English colonists of New England looked southward with envious eyes on the more fertile regions of New Netherland and began to adopt measures for dispossessing the Dutch of their lands not merely on the Connecticut but the east of the lower portion of the North River. A settlement had been planted in 1638 at a place called the Roodenberg, or Red Hill; and the foundation of the colony of New Haven was laid. De Vries states in his account that in June, 1639, he anchored at New Haven, where, to his surprise, he found about three hundred houses built and a fine

church. Hartford was already a flourishing settlement. Other English emigrants soon after established themselves in the region about what is now known as Norwalk, Stamford, and Greenwich, interfering with the lands appertaining to the Dutch settlement at Fort Good Hope on the Fresh Water, or Connecticut River, which had been purchased from the Indians in 1632-33, as well as the lands at the mouth of the river. On account of these continual encroachments the director thought it expedient at this time to fortify the title of the company to lands on the East River, by purchasing from the aborigines all the mainland and the outlying islands extending northeast of the Great Kill, or Harlem River, as far as the inlet at Norwalk. About this time also the director made extensive purchases from the Canarsee tribe of land on the western part of Long Island, embracing parts of the modern counties of Kings and Queens.

The emigrants from England had in the meantime made considerable purchases at the eastern portion of Long Island, and sought to take possession of a portion of the island to the west, which had been granted to the Dutch by the Indians. Against these proceedings the director took active measures and sent a small military expedition which soon drove away without bloodshed the English trespassers and vindicated the sovereignty of the company over their Long Island possessions. It is to be remarked that Kieft in his instructions ordered "Above all things take care that no blood be shed." In this instance at least he showed prudence and humanity. The English occupation of the eastern part of the island still continued, however, and the towns of Southampton and Southold commenced their career.

Trouble with the Indians—About the middle of 1640 Raritan Indians were accused by Kieft on very slender grounds of taking certain property on Staten Island and of attacking a trading yacht. After very little investigation the director sent an expedition against them, which murdered several of the natives and ravaged their fields. The military appear to have acted in accordance with the instructions of their commander. Van Tienhoven, the commander, likewise seems to have acted on the counsel of the director-general, and Kieft was generally held responsible for the wrong that had been perpetrated. The affair provided the ground for the feeling of enmity among the aborigines that in a brief time culminated in the terrible Indian wars, which caused great loss of life and property to settlers in Manhattan and on the mainland, and so retarded the progress of the Dutch colonies that they were in no condition to offer resistance to the invading forces of the Duke of York in 1664.

The plans adopted by the authorities of the colony in their relations

with the Indians cannot be said to have been measures of wisdom. In the beginning the aborigines had been treated with a considerable measure of courtesy and fair play by the traders and the Indians had put a good deal of trust in them. But when the whites began to exercise fraud and treachery the confidence of the Indians gave place to distrust. Liquor also was frequently sold to them, although there were soon consistent efforts on the part of the Indian chieftains and spasmodic efforts on the part of the Dutch authorities to put a stop to the dangerous traffic. Another of the occurrences that intensified the feeling of hostility between the Dutch and the aborigines was an attack, made for some motive or cause not apparent, by Raritan Indians on the plantation of De Vries, on Staten Island, in which four of the settlers were killed. This occurred at the end of summer in 1641. Following this affair Kieft offered a reward for the head of any one of the Raritans that might be brought to the fort—an edict that was tantamount to a proclamation of war. There were also other affairs that increased the acerbation of feeling. A wheelwright, named Claes Smits or Switz, who occupied a house at Deutel, or Turtle Bay, an inlet on the East River, was murdered in cold blood by one of the Weckquaesgecks, whose haunts were in the valley of the Bronx, in revenge for the murder already related sixteen years previous of his uncle, carrying furs to New Amsterdam by Dutch workers near the Fresh Water Pond, later called the Collect. As the Weckquaesgecks refused to surrender the murderer it was decided to declare war against them. This meant an expedition on to the mainland and a campaign in the region of what is now The Bronx. Before active measures were taken, however, the director resolved to take counsel with prominent men in the community in order that the entire responsibility might not be laid on his shoulders. He accordingly sent out the following notice, dated August 23, 1641: "The Director-General of New Netherland informs, herewith, all heads or masters of families, living in this vicinity, that he wishes them to come to Fort Amsterdam, on Thursday, the 29th of August, for the consideration of some important and necessary matters."

A group of the colonists attended and the result of the gathering was that twelve men were selected to consider the question of the measures to be adopted in retaliation. De Vries was chosen president of the new council of war. Among the others are found the names of Jan Jansen Damen, farmer; Maryn Adriaensen, who afterwards attempted to murder the director; Joachim Pietersen Kuyter; Joris or George Rapalje, one of the original Walloon colonists; and Abraham Isaacsen Planck, a farmer from Paulus Hoeck. The council was of opinion that energetic attempts should be made to apprehend the murderer; but that

in case of failure to secure him the settlement of the Weckquaesgecks should be destroyed, not, however, before the Indian hunting expeditions had begun. It was recommended also that the director ought to lead the van in case of active war and that the freemen and soldiers be supplied with coats of mail. De Vries, although the principal sufferer from Indian attacks, was of opinion that the colony was not then in a condition for open war with the powerful tribes of the vicinity. The Amsterdam Chamber moreover was opposed to hostilities with the Indians and the twelve men in general were of that opinion also.

Kieft, however, was burning for revenge. Though the advice of the twelve men postponed action for the present the director kept his mind on the idea of punishment. The time was not then propitious and his insistence had been such that he had at least secured from the twelve a commission to engage in an expedition. These twelve men, all persons of consequence, and able to weigh the director's tendency to arbitrariness, and recognizing the circumstance that there was in fact no practical limit to his authority, thought the season opportune for making a formal representation to him to the effect that the people of the colony should have a permanent representation in the administration at least of municipal affairs, based upon the burgher rights of the Fatherland. They suggested an increase in the permanent council so that the number should be at least five; and that four out of the twelve men to be elected by the citizens should be assigned places in the council, who were to take part in judicial as well as civil proceedings. Other important demands were made. Under popular pressure the director conceded the right that the commonalty might select the four men desired to be associated in the council to act in judicial matters; and that at certain specified times they should be called upon to advise upon public affairs. It was conceded also that the inhabitants might in future trade with friendly colonies, upon paying certain imposts to the company and for the purpose of protecting the cattle trade the New England colonies were to be prohibited from selling cows and goats in the colony. These concessions were carried into execution to a limited extent only, for the director soon resumed his arbitrary powers, dismissing the twelve men, whose presence he found embarrassing, and prohibiting the calling of any assembly of the people without his express order, as leading to dangerous consequences and to the great injury both of the country and of his authority.

Preparations for War—Meanwhile warlike preparations were going on and the expedition against the Weckquaesgecks was sent out in March, 1642. It consisted of eighty men under the command of Ensign Van Dyck, an officer of the fort, Kieft himself surrendering the

honor of leading the forces. The expedition crossed the Harlem River and entered the Westchester region, with orders to punish the savages with fire and sword. Owing to a mistake, however, in the route, and the darkness of the night the settlement of the Indians was not reached and the ensign ordered a retreat to New Amsterdam. The savages, however, were intimidated by these martial manoevres and offered to surrender the murderer, an offer which they took good care not to put into execution. Peace, however, was concluded on this verbal act and formally signed at the house of Jonas Bronck, the leading pioneer in the valley of the river that was to bear his name. The interval of peace was destined to be a short one. There was an attempt to impose a tribute upon the tribes in The Bronx vicinity and the cattle of the settlers still were permitted to trample the crops of the aborigines. The feeling of hostility deepened and then another incident occurred which served as a spark to bring about a conflagration.

One of the Red Men in the course of a quarrel deliberately shot a Dutch colonist who was at work at Van der Horst's plantation, near the Hackingsack and North rivers. In spite of the fact that the chiefs of the tribe offered to come to the fort and make compensation in the form of blood money, Kieft demanded as the sole reparation that the murderer should be delivered at the fort. The reply was that he had absconded and taken refuge with the Tankitekes and that such ocurrences only came about through the whites selling liquor to the Indians. The director at once made the demand on Pacham, chief of the Tankitekes, for the delivery of the murderer; but a merely scoffing answer was returned. A body of the Iroquois had in the meantime appeared in the north to collect tribute from the Westchester and River tribes and drove before them a host of terrified fugitives, who took habitation, some on De Vries's plantation at Vriesendael, some among the Hackingsacks on the west side of the river, and others in The Bronx and on Manhattan. Kieft showed anything but sympathy with the victims who had been thus delivered into his power. He considered that the occasion was an appropriate one for the retaliation which he had vowed for the Smits and Van Voorst murders and swore that he would make the savages "wipe their chops." Some of the more prudent of citizens were urgent in their opposition to reprisals, but three of the former twelve men were as urgent in their call for vengeance, and they signed a petition to that effect, apparently in the name of the whole body. Kieft required no persuasion, and remonstrance from citizens was of no avail. He prepared an expedition and had it fitted out so hastily that no proper warning was given the settlers in outlying localities. De Vries warned him that these isolated settlers

would be sure to suffer grievously, but with little avail. It was determined to send a force to Pavonia, and a force to drive away those Indians who had taken refuge at Corlaer's Hoeck. The marching orders for the expedition to Pavonia were as follows: "Sergeant Rodolf is authorized and commanded to take under his command a troop of soldiers and lead them to Pavonia, and drive away and destroy the savages being behind John Evertsens; but to spare, as much as it is possible, their wives and children, and to take the savages prisoners. Done, February 25, 1643."

The body of men that proceeded to the Jersey shore made a murderous midnight attack upon a group of the refugee Tapaens, and relentlessly slaughtered for the most part in their sleep over eighty men, women, and children. The shrieks of the victims were heard at the fort of Amsterdam. The other expedition attacked the unfortunate aborigines gathered at Corlaer's Hoeck, surprising them also in their sleep. At that point about forty were killed, neither infants nor women being spared. There was a certain subdued exultation in New Amsterdam on the return of the two expeditions. The misgivings among those who felt them were not given expression. A foray was also made, without the director's authorization, by certain of the inhabitants of New Amersfoort, on Long Island, against the Marechkawiecks, a peaceful tribe, living within the limits of the present Brooklyn.

Enmity of the Indians—The effect of these atrocities was to excite the extreme enmity of all the Indians in the environs and to force them into unity against the common enemy. Something like eleven tribes were soon in combination for the destruction of the whites. Settlements were attacked and devastated; cattle and crops were destroyed; houses were burned; and the families on farms were slaughtered without mercy, or carried into captivity. Every plantation in New Netherland was exposed to destruction. The terrified planters fled to the fort for safety, and many abandoned the colony for the home country. Roger Williams, who was in New Amsterdam at the time, taking ship for Europe, was a witness to the desolation and the havoc that prevailed. "Before we weighed anchor," he wrote, "mine eyes saw the flames of their towns, and the flights and hurries of men, women, and children, and the present removal of all that could to Holland." In a short time only three bouweries remained entire on the island of Manhattan, and there were two on Staten Island. De Vries relates that the savages burned his farm, cattle, corn, barn, tobacco house and all the tobacco, and attacked his people, who took refuge in the house, which was made with embrasures, where they defended themselves. They were saved from destruction by a friendly Indian, whom De Vries had formerly

protected, and his house and brewery were spared. All the male colonists in Manhattan and those over the Harlem were then enrolled as soldiers under pay and peace was sought to be made with the Long Island Indians, though at first scornfully rejected. Later they showed a disposition towards peace and sent delegates to the fort. They had acted heretofore in hostility, because members of their tribe had been slaughtered at Corlaer's Hoeck, and others at Amersfoort. De Vries, whose dealings with the Indians had won their confidence, offered to go to one of their settlements, to treat with them, and with a companion named Olfertsen proceeded to a place called Rech-quaakie, later Rockaway. After being hospitably entertained and lodged for the night, De Vries and his companion proceeded, at break of day, with the Indians to a neighboring wood, where the council began its sessions.

At the head of the assemblage sat Pennawitz, chief of the Canarsees, with sixteen of his principal sachems, says one account; "while several hundred sulky warriors stood in a circle, looking with little favor upon the bold delegates who had come from the fort. There was at first a gloomy silence. Then Pennawitz began a rehearsal of the wrongs the Indians had received at the hands of the Dutch; and, at the end of every charge, laid down, for emphasis and enumeration, a little stick. Finally, De Vries, growing impatient at the number of charges and sticks, which seemed to act as irritants upon the savages, proposed to them that delegates from their number should go to the fort, where they should receive presents and make a peace." The Indians naturally hesitated about going to New Amsterdam and placing themselves in the hands of their enemies; but finally, in the words of De Vries, 'One of the chiefs, who knew men, said, 'We will go on the faith of your word, for the Indians have never found you to be as they have other Swannekens;' and finally, twenty of us went, sitting in a canoe or hollow tree, which is their boat; and the edge was not a hand's breadth above the water. Arrived at the fort, William Kieft came and made peace with the Indians and gave them some presents. He requested them to bring those chiefs to the fort who had lost so many Indians, as he wished also to make peace with them and to give them presents. Then some of them went and brought the Indians of Ackinsack and Tapaen and the vicinity, and the chiefs came forward, to whom he made presents, but they were not well content with them. They told me that he could have made peace by his presents, so that those days would never again be spoken of; but now it might fall out that the infants on the small boards would be remembered. They then went away grumbling at their presents.' The terms of the peace were that all injuries mutually received should be considered forgiven, and no further molestation should

be made on either side; and the Indians were to give notice of any plots by other savages not represented in the treaty."

This was splendid, but the depth of enmity that had been aroused could not be composed so easily. The strong rancor against their oppressors remained in the breasts of the Indians. Pacham, the warlike chief of the Tankitekes, was unsleeping in his efforts to stir up the river tribes to a renewal of hostilities. A few months after the conclusion of peace an Indian chief informed De Vries that he was much troubled because the young men of his tribe wanted to make war on the Dutch. Had the director made a proper compensation for the murders that had been committed they would have been forgotten. Evidently there was a great deal of trouble still to come. It came in the late summer of 1643, and was begun by the Tankiteke and Wappinger tribes, these latter located near the highlands of the North River, and it took the form of an attack on some boats laden with beaver skins, descending the river from Fort Orange. In this attack twelve of the Dutch were killed. Kieft realized that the occasion was critical and called again upon the community for counsel, eight men being finally selected to act in conference with him. The decision of the council and the eight men was that peace was to be maintained with the Long Island Indians; but war was promptly declared against the river tribes. The colonists and the company's employees were thereupon armed and drilled and, in addition, some English settlers and soldiers under Captain John Underhill to the number of fifty, who were to receive pay and to take an oath of fidelity to the States-General and to the local government. Underhill was an expert Indian fighter, having fought in the wars of the New Englanders against the Pequods in 1637.

War in Bronx Territory—The warlike Weckquaesgecks joined at this juncture the hostile upper tribes and commenced their depredations by attacking the unsuspecting settlers who had received grants in the valley of what was then called the Aquahung but which later came to be called the Bronx River, as well as along the coast of Pelham Bay. It was in this campaign that Anne Hutchinson and her family were treacherously killed. The Throgmorton and Cornell plantations were devastated and many members of the Throgmorton and Cornell families were murdered. Several of the Long Island tribes attacked the settlements of Gravesend and Mespat; the first of which was successfully defended by the English refugees there, Lady Deborah Moody and her associates; but Francis Doughty, the English clergyman, and his people, who were located at Mespat, were driven from their settlement, with loss of life, and their plantations and houses were burned. Other settlements on Long Island were devastated, and the inhabitants fled

in terror before the savage invaders. The Nevesincks, located near the Atlantic and Raritan Bay, south of the Raritans, joined in the uprising, and commenced murderous attacks, while the discontented Hackingsacks, in September, 1643, attacked Van der Horst's colony, at Achter-Cul, and Stoffelsen's plantation at Pavonia. They treacherously approached the latter place and those left there to defend it, having imprudently laid aside their arms, were slain. As the incursions of the Indians grew bolder and houses and farms were successively attacked, the terrified colonists from the outlying plantations took refuge in the huts about the crumbling fort at New Amsterdam. An army of fifteen hundred men out of seven allied hostile tribes, supplied with guns and ammunition, was preparing to attack it, their scouting parties already showing themselves in the woods north of the town, firing at times on the outposts and killing the sentinels. It became evident to the citizens that they would be compelled to make a supreme effort in defence of their lives and property, threatened as they had not been threatened before. Their army was small. It consisted merely of fifty or sixty soldiers of the garrison, the English contingent, and about two hundred armed freemen. The New Haven colonists did not make any favorable response to the plea sent to them for assistance. They merely offered provisions, if they were needed.

In this crisis De Vries returned to Holland by way of Virginia, laying the blame for the perilous condition of affairs on Director-General Kieft. "I doubt not that vengeance for the innocent blood you have shed in your murderings, sooner or later, will be visited on your head" was the warning he addressed to Kieft before departing. An urgent appeal was made about the same time by the eight men to the directors of the West India Company and to the States-General, describing the perilous condition of the province and the destruction with which it was menaced. There appeared, however, very little indication of any assistance being sent from abroad and the colonists began to recognize the fact that they had been thrown on their own resources and would have to meet the crisis with all the courage they could command. The town had been put under martial law and strict ordinances were promulgated for the maintenance of discipline. The period of tension brought a period of good resolutions. Whoever profaned the name of God at the guardhouse, abused a companion on duty, or neglected his turn of service, was to pay a fine; and whoever discharged his gun without order of the corporal when reveille was sounded was to be fined a florin. The town nevertheless continued in a state of disorder, and thefts and surreptitious killing of cattle became frequent. The Fiscal was brought before the council and accused of having in

his cups called the director-general a rascal, thief, and drunkard; and was sternly commanded to discharge his duties more carefully. The authorities moreover put forth energetic efforts to crush the offensive of the enemy. Councillor La Montagne and, under him, Joachim Pietersen Kuyter, with forty other citizens, and English soldiers under Lieutenant Baxter, made an excursion to Staten Island, and brought to the fort a large quantity of corn, which was badly needed. An expedition was also sent in January, 1644, against the Connecticut Indians, who had made an attack on the English settlers of Greenwich, who, under the direction of one Captain Patrick, had placed themselves under Dutch protection. The expedition went by water and after some delay a detachment surprised and attacked an Indian village and killed a score of warriors. Another party, under Lieutenant Baxter and Sergeant Cock, marched to the strongholds of the Weckquaesgecks, in the Westchester region. They succeeded in destroying two of their strongholds, and fortifying a third one and using it as a base. They ravaged the crops of the savages through Westchester and in the direction of the Bronx valley, and after killing a number of the aborigines, returned to Fort Amsterdam, carrying several prisoners with them in triumph.

Indian Defeats—Towards the close of the year 1644 a force of one hundred and twenty men, composed of the regulars under Sergeant Cock and armed citizens led by Joachim Pietersen Kuyter, under the general command of the indefatigable Montagne, was sent against the Canarsee Indians on Long Island, who were suspected of treachery and of meditating hostilities against certain English settlers, who, under Fordham, Ogden, and Lawrence, had been established on the plains and bay at Heemstede under a patent that had been given out not long before. Montagne and Underhill, the latter the commander of the English forces, in separate detachments, attacked two villages, one at Mespat, and succeeded in killing one hundred and twenty of the Indians. It is related that two of the prisoners were afterwards killed at the fort under circumstances of great barbarity. A forced levy on the cargo of a ship from Holland bound for Rensselaerswyck, and having on board guns and ammunition not on its manifest, had supplied the troops with much-needed clothing and military supplies, and enabled the director to send out his attacking parties. Captain Underhill and Ensign Van Dyck were also despatched in mid-winter on an expedition against the Connecticut Indians and succeeded in accomplishing the most important undertaking of the war. Landing at Greenwich from three boats the expedition made a difficult and perilous march through a wilderness, impeded by snow and by rocks over which the men were obliged to crawl, and arriving at night at a stronghold of the savages. Once on

the spot they boldly charged the red men, swords in their hands. The Indians were not unprepared and made a desperate resistance, and made repeated sallies from behind their palisades. Nearly two hundred of the aboriginal warriors were killed in this encounter and their village having been fired, upwards of three hundred more of the savages were shot down or driven back into the flames. The next morning the victors marched back over the toilsome route and passing through Stamford, after a journey of two days and a night in reaching that place, returned to Fort Amsterdam, where they were received with jubilation. The director issued a proclamation of thanksgiving for the success of the Dutch arms, which at that critical time, was of great importance to the colony.

It was thus the turn of the white man, who in a brief time had won a series of decisive victories over the red men. The punishment inflicted on the aborigines made a deep impression on the survivors; and the time for sowing their crops having arrived overtures for peace were made by some of the hostile tribes. In the spring of 1644, Mongockonone and Papenaharrow, sachems of the Weckquaesgecks, and Marmaranck, chief of the Crotons, arrived at the fort and entered into terms of peace for their tribes. Leading men among the Wappingers, or Wappinecks, and of tribes north of Greenwich and Stamford, came also. It was agreed that Pacham, the fighting chief of the Tankitekes, should be surrendered. Then the Mattinnecocks on Long Island expressed their wish for peace, and promised that the tribes in their vicinity would be restrained from attacks on the settlers. Palisades were erected by the settlers in various localities as an added protection against future forays.

Savages Still Aggressive—The eight men of the province then took counsel on the posture of affairs to see what could be done in the case of settlements such as those in The Bronx, too far removed from the tip of the Manhattan to benefit much by the force collected there, and open still to depredations. No aid had been received from Holland, and the colonial government, having no funds with which to meet the expense of the English soldiers, the director, in opposition to the protests of the eight men, as well as of other citizens, laid an excise duty on liquors and beaver skins, in order to raise a revenue. The remonstrance against the impost was treated with disdain by Kieft, who remarked: "I have more power here than the company itself; therefore, I may, and do allow, in this country, what I please. I am my own master; for I have my commission not only from the company, but from the States-General." Some assistance finally came to the distressed colony in the summer, in the form of a body of one hundred and thirty

soldiers, who had been driven from the company's settlement in Brazil by the Portuguese, and were sent to New Amsterdam by Peter Stuyvesant, the company's director at Curaçao. It was thereupon determined that the English mercenaries should be honorably dismissed from further service and that the Dutch soldiers should remain, for the present, at New Amsterdam, and be billeted upon the inhabitants, while the cost of providing them with clothes was to be paid from the excise moneys.

A great deal had thus been done, but much still remained to be done. The eight men, stimulated by the additional military strength that had come to the colony, were of opinion that the war against the Indians should be prosecuted with vigor. But there was a great deal of dilly-dallying, and the lack of decision was accentuated by dissension between the director-general and his councillors. In the interval of inaction the aborigines grew aggressive again, and parties roving day and night through Westchester and through Manhattan kept the colonists in continual trepidation. No expedition was undertaken of any importance, though a raid was made through Westchester and The Bronx valley in which some of the Indians were slain. The troubles in New Amsterdam meanwhile continued and the fault was laid on the director-general. The bitterness against him was accentuated by the imposition of the new excise and as a result of the general feeling the eight men, led by Melyn, forwarded in October, 1644, a memorial to the States-General for his recall, and after describing the Indian massacres, petitioned at the same time for a system of government like that appertaining to the municipalities of Holland. The language of the memorial of the eight men presented a gloomy picture of the state of the province. It told of its former peaceable condition and the friendly disposition of the Indians under the administration of Van Twiller.

These, it stated, hath the Director, by various uncalled for proceedings, from time to time, so estranged from us and so embittered against the Netherlands nation, that we do not believe that anything will bring them and peace back, unless that the Lord God, who bends all men's hearts to his will, propitiate their people; so that the ancient sage hath well observed, any man can create turmoil and set the people one against the other, but to establish harmony again is in the power of God alone. The memorial goes on to declare that a temporary and illusory peace had been patched up, but that the savages were continually aggressive and attacked settlers, at times, within a thousand feet of the Fort, and that the Company's farms are in danger of being burnt; that nothing has been done recently, even since the arrival of the immigrants and soldiers from Brazil, and that everything is going to ruin. Honored Lords, the memorial continued, this is what we have, in the sorrow of our hearts, complained of; that one man who has been sent out, sworn and instructed by his lords and masters to whom he is responsible, should dispose here of our lives and properties, at his will and pleasure, in a manner so arbitrary that a king dare not legally do the like.

They requested that a new governor might be sent out and magistrates appointed, or that they all, with their wives and families, be allowed to return to Holland. In the meantime the memorials of August, 1643, which had been sent over both to the States-General and the directors of the company, had reached Holland, causing grave concern and leading to the earnest discussion of the affairs of the province. The States-General called the attention of the Assembly of XIX, which had the particular direction of the affairs of New Netherland, to its disturbed condition. The response was that the bankrupt condition of the company rendered it unable to send any relief, and that the long looked-for profits from thence had not come. They asked for a subsidy of a million of guilders in order to place the colony in a safe and prosperous condition.

New Netherland Unprofitable—Prior to the taking of any steps, however, the memorial of the eight men of October, 1644, arrived and made a considerable impression on the directors, and the whole matter was referred to the Amsterdam Chamber for further investigation and report. The directors of the company came to the conclusion that the state of the colony was such and Kieft's incapacity so manifest that either a new director should be sent over or the colonists be transported to Holland and the colony abandoned. It was in the end determined to recall Kieft and provisionally to appoint Lubberts Van Dincklagen in his place. The Chamber of Accounts, to whom the affairs of the province were referred for a particular investigation, reported, after a long review of the history of the colony, that its ruinous condition was due immediately to the unnecessary Indian wars promoted by Kieft, the separation of the colonists, and the imposition of tribute on the Indians; and concluded that, although the colony, instead of being a source of profit, had caused the company, from 1626 to 1644 inclusive, a net loss of over five hundred and fifty thousand guilders, the company could not decently or consistently abandon it. The bureau made certain recommendations for the future government of the province; among other things they opposed the views of Kieft to the effect that a body of soldiers should be sent and the hostile Indians exterminated, but that the opinion of the commonalty should be adopted and the savages appeased. It would also be proper, the report stated, to order hither the director and council, who are responsible for the bloody exploit of the 28th of February, 1643, to justify and vindicate their administration before the noble Assembly of the XIX. It was further recommended that the fort was in such a state that it should be rebuilt of stone.

It was thus evident that at the period treated the Dutch colony

was in anything but a prosperous condition. Instead of fulfilling the promise of development indicated at the beginning of the administration the settlement of the province had been retarded, the population had declined, immigration had almost ceased, trade had been suspended, farms had been abandoned, cattle destroyed, and the people were discontented and defiant. All the evils resulting from five years of war, with an interval of only a few months of peace, had been experienced by the unfortunate colony. During two years it was estimated that over sixteen hundred Indians had been killed and not much above a hundred white men remained on Manhattan and in the region of what was later Westchester and The Bronx. Some had gone to Fort Orange; many had returned to Holland. All the settlements on the west side of the North River had been destroyed. In The Bronx and Westchester the farms had been almost completely abandoned and the devastated plantations testified to the trail of ruin which had passed through the peaceful valley of the Aquahung. However, peace was once again to reign over the distracted New Netherland. The Indians were in trouble from the neglect of their annual crops; and a treaty was made in May, 1645, with some of the neighboring aborigines of Long Island. On this there was great expression of rejoicing, and at the firing of a salute from three of the dangerous pieces of ordnance at the fort, one of them, a six-pounder, bursting, seriously wounded one of the gunners. Many of the more distant Indians on Long Island soon after came to terms, through the aid of the Mockgonecocks, a friendly tribe. Then the director, in July, 1645, went with his faithful councillor, La Montagne, up the river, to Fort Orange; and arrangements for peace were made with the hostile nation of the Mohegans and other tribes in the territory of The Bronx and Westchester. Peace was also concluded with the tribes in the vicinity of the island of Manhattan; and as the terms of the pacification were submitted to the public the joy was great and the approval general. Towards the end of August, 1645, sachems from the various tribes and a number of prominent men in the colony, sitting in the open air within the crumbling walls of the fort, ratified the terms of the general pacification. Among the sachems present were those of the Hackingsacks and Tapaans, Aepjen, chief of the Mohegans, delegates for the Weckquaesgecks and Sint Sinks, the Kicktawanks, the Wappinecks, the Nayacks, and other river tribes. There, too, were Mohawk ambassadors, with their own interpreter, giving assent for the great Iroquois confederacy. Among the signers of the treaty were: Kieft, La Montagne, Underhill, George Baxter, Francis Doughty, Gysbert Opdyck, Aepjen, sachem of the Mohegans, by his mark, and also by their marks, the sachems Oratary, Auronge, Sespechemis, and Wil-

liam of Tapaan. By the terms of the peace, all future aggressions or injuries by the Indians or the Dutch were to be referred to their respective rulers for redress. No armed Indian was in future to visit the settlements in the province; and the Dutch, on their part, were to refrain from visiting the Indian villages without permission, unless conducted by one of the tribe. It was in this treaty that the stipulation was contained for the return of the granddaughter of Anne Hutchinson, stolen on the occasion of the murder of that stern and vigorous woman and others of her family, and the destruction of her plantation in The Bronx region.

A proclamation of thanksgiving for the peace was issued by the council. After declaring that the "long-desired peace with the savages had been bestowed by the Almighty," the proclamation concluded as follows: "So it has been deemed becoming to proclaim this good tidings throughout New Netherland, to the intention that, in all places where there are any English or Dutch Churches, God Almighty shall be thanked and praised, on the 6th of September next. The words of the text must be appropriate to the occasion, and the Sermon likewise." The settlers in the outlying plantations, in Westchester and The Bronx, and on Manhattan, began at this juncture to return to their respective bouweries and to collect such of their stock and other property as could be found. Another colony of English was begun under a patent granted to Thomas Farrington, John Townsend, John Lawrence, and others, at what was then called Vlissingen, and later Flushing, just opposite The Bronx settlement across the Sound. The settlers were to have municipal privileges, freedom of conscience, and their own ecclesiastical rule. The English minister, Doughty, and his associates also repossessed themselves of their plantation at Mespat; and Lady Moody and her Anabaptist friends received a formal patent of the region which they had planted and valiantly defended at Gravesend, with power to establish a town government. The director also, in September, procured for the company, by grant from the Indians, a large tract on Long Island extending from the Coneyn Island to Gowanus. The marks of the signatures of the red men were arrows, sticks and beavers.

Change in Government—The heads of the West India Company in Holland, having apprised themselves of the perilous condition of the colony, and of the unfitness of Kieft for his office, determined to make a change in its government. The provisional appointment of Van Dincklagen, as a new director in place of Kieft, was revoked, and it was resolved to appoint as his successor Peter Stuyvesant. The Assembly of the XIX adopted a code of extensive regulations and instructions for the future administration of the province; among which was

the throwing open of the carrying trade between New Netherland and Holland. Lack of agreement among the chambers of the West India Company and the intelligence received of peace established delayed the accession of the new government; and Kieft remained as director-general a year after the appointment of Stuyvesant, although the friction between him and the prominent men of the colony had increased from his knowledge of the criticism they had made to headquarters against him.

It was around this period, in February, 1646, that there arrived at New Amsterdam from the colony at Rensselaerswyck, where he had filled the office of schout fiscal, Adriaen Van Der Donck, concerning whom details have already been given in this history. He was one of the figures most prominent in the earliest history of the region of The Bronx. His education at Leyden and his doctorship in both civil and canon law made him a man of consequence in the colony. He had assisted the director in making peace at Fort Orange and he was granted a patroonship over the large territory on the North River, extending from Spuyten Duyvil upward and inward to the Saw-kill valley; and having purchased the region from the Indians, and his patroonship being confirmed by the States-General, the colony called Colon Donck, or Donck's Colony, was established in the region of The Bronx. It was during the period of Stuyvesant's administration that Van Der Donck published his pamphlet, commonly called the "Vertoogh," in which he gave a representation of the condition of New Netherland, and criticized unfavorably the Kieft administration. At this time the English of New Haven made purchases from the Indians of lands between the Naugatuck and the North River, which Kieft claimed was an encroachment on the company's possessions to the east of the Hudson. The action of the New Haven people and the English at Hartford, who were complaining against the action of the Dutch at Fort Good Hope, was sustained by the commissioners of the United New England colonies, who met in council at New Haven. Thus no redress was obtained. In the course of the negotiations the director sent to the commissioners several protests, in Latin, threatening that, at a fit opportunity, satisfaction would be exacted; but the New Englanders appear to have disregarded these protests, except by making counter charges. The English in any case knew that right or wrong they had might on their side. At that time they had upward of five thousand men capable of bearing arms and a population of forty thousand. The director was well aware of this also, and likened the charges of the English to the accusations of the wolf against the lamb—the fable so applicable before and since to the relations of the strong and the weak.

Manhattan and The Bronx—The naming of Peter Stuyvesant for the office of the director-general of New Netherland was formally approved by the States-General in July, 1646, and at the same time Lubbertus Van Dincklagen was appointed vice-director. The new officials did not leave Holland till December of the same year; and after landing at the West Indies at Curaçao, arrived at New Amsterdam on May 11, 1647; and the administration of Kieft thus came to an end. We can figure pretty well how Manhattan and The Bronx would appear to the visitor at that time. There were the great rivers on both sides and there were picturesque hills and dales. Windmills were among the most conspicuous of the objects which owed their origin to the handiwork of man. In Manhattan the fort would be the central object of the view from the river, and it would arouse a natural curiosity as the symbol of the strength of the colony, the emblem of home authority, the local manifestation of sovereign power, the representative habitation abroad of the authority of their High Mightinesses, the States-General. Around its walls the early memories of the settlers gathered and on its bastion floated the flag that recalled the Fatherland that had been left behind, under the protecting power of which the hamlet over the ocean had nestled and spread and grown, so that even with its few and ancient cannon and crumbling earthworks, it was still able to bid defiance to both civilized and aboriginal foe. The church within the walls of the fort, with its twin roofs and little belfry, would from the river stand clearly out against the sky; while, to the east, would rise the Stadt Herberg, conspicuous above the surrounding cottages with their peaked roofs. Along the shore might be seen, perhaps, some Indian lazily paddling his canoe in the river, laden with tobacco and maize, towards the mouth of the gracht at the foot of Broad Street; while out in the bay, drying her sails, would be a vessel, just arrived from Curaçao, with her cargo of salt and cattle and slaves. Of the two great rivers the Hudson was called by Europeans and settlers the "River of the Mountains" and the "Mauritius;" also the "Nassau" and the "Great North River"—this last in relation to the Delaware, which was called the "South River." It was variously designated by the Indians the "Mahican," the "Shatemuc," and the "Cahohatatea"—poetical names that ought to find some place in the nomenclature of New York, but that up to this have not.

We appear to have very little early pictorial representations of The Bronx region as we have of Manhattan. The best attempt to visualize the life over the Harlem is given perhaps by E. W. Deming's painting of "The Purchase of Keskeskeck," at present in the Morris High School. The picture is an ideal one and brings before our eyes a Dutch interior

of the period. The most striking figure in the group is the stalwart form of the Indian warrior who is speaking for his fellows. These are crouched on the ground behind him, while the Dutch burghers with whom they are in conference are seated at a plain table in the centre, the scrivener busy with pen and paper. Four or five women add to the homelike atmosphere of the smoky interior. There is a huge brick fireplace with pewter and candlesticks, and in the background is a tesselated window, long and narrow. The rafters can just be seen through the smoke. The Dutch colonists look very spry in their linen cravats, their long jackets, their tall, flapping boots, and their white linen cuffs. There is an atmosphere of intentness about the picture, most of the eyes being fixed on the sachem, who speaks with outstretched arm, and who gives the impression of keen regard for the rights of himself and his brethren. The group may be a work of pure imagination, but even so the scene when the first large transference of land was made in The Bronx region from the possession of the aborigines to the white man must have had many features in common with it.

Doubtless the tribute to the Bronx River made in a later day by Joseph Rodman Drake might not unaptly have been applied to it in that early time:

> I sat me down upon the green bank side,
> Skirting the smooth edge of a gentle river,
> Whose waters seemed unwillingly to glide,
> Like parting friends, who linger while they sever;
> Enforced to go, yet seeming still unready,
> Backward they wind their way in many a wistful eddy.
>
> And I did leave thy loveliness to stand
> Again in the dull world of earthly blindness,
> Pain'd with the pressure of unfriendly hands,
> Sick of smooth looks, agued with icy kindness;
> Left I for this thy shades, where none intrude,
> To prison wandering thought and mar sweet solitude.
>
> Yet I will look upon thy face again,
> My own romantic Bronx, and it will be
> A face more pleasant than the face of men.
> Thy waves are old companions; I shall see
> A well-remembered form in each old tree,
> And hear a voice loved in thy wild minstrelsy.

The houses of the settlements were at this time chiefly of wood, with thatched roofs, some of them covered with sods. The chimneys were mostly of wood. Some of the houses, however, particularly those of the plantations, were somewhat superior, and partially constructed of

brick or stone. On Manhattan, the church, the company's five warehouses, and the city tavern were substantially built of stone; and we read of a fine mansion, contracted to be built for the director, which was to be partially of stone, and upward of one hundred feet long. His house in the fort was built of brick. Director Kieft did much to improve the settlements, and during his early administration there was considerable activity in building and in the laying out of plantations. Most of the houses, for the sake of the shelter afforded, were clustered about the fort or where the two rivers gave protection and easy approach. They were placed at first in a straggling manner, some on the thoroughfares, and some at random, about the quaint little town. The bouweries were nearly all located on the two rivers, on both sides of the Harlem Kill, and on the shores of the bays and lagoons of the East River. The outlying plantations, such as those in Westchester and the valley of The Bronx, and the other stream that ran through The Bronx territory, were generally protected by wooden palings against Indians and wild beasts. In the beginning settlers had located themselves on any spot of ground that seemed good to them, land being then of little value, and the trader population being mainly migratory. In 1642, however, Andreas Hudde was appointed surveyor to draw lines and make boundaries; and land, thereafter, when conveyed, was defined by rods and feet, and farm-land outside was conveyed by morgens. When the Kieft administration began there was no regulation of streets or paving, and no names except those suggested by the nature of the ground or by natural boundaries. Such roads or lanes as there were resulted from the convenience afforded in reaching certain localities or in avoiding hills or swamps. Some of them were the paths of cattle. On Manhattan the main road, called the Public Road, the Hoogh Weg, or Highway, and after that Heeren Straat, extended from the fort north, on the line of the present Broadway, extending upward through the island, though in those days branching to the Old Post, or Boston Road, which ran through The Bronx. A dense forest in which deer herded plentifully covered the middle and upper parts of the island of Manhattan and thence through The Bronx, and here the tribes of the Manhattans and the Mohegans lived in their primitive way. Wolves roamed at large through the Manhattan and Westchester region and bears were not infrequent in their visits to the Harlem, and afforded considerable sport to the settlers as the annals show. A bear hunt which took place in 1680 is chronicled by the Rev. Charles Wooley, who found in the hunt "great diversion and sport." When the bear got to his resting place, he writes, "perched upon a high branch, we prudently despatched a youth after him with a club to an opposite

bough, who knocked his paws. He comes grumbling down with a thump upon the ground—and so, after him again!"

In the general history of New York City the name of Jonas Bronck is often referred to as an evidence that men of means and men of wealth were at that early time to be numbered among the inhabitants of the province and the city. His purchase of the large tract of land north of the Harlem is mentioned as one of the landmarks in the history of New Amsterdam and New York. Much is made of his hostility to Kieft, and it is inferred that he held the director-general responsible for the Indian troubles in which his own house, Emmaus, was burnt, as well as the house of his neighbor, Kuyter, a Danish Lutheran like himself. The inventory of the goods and effects of Feuntje, the widow of Jonas Bronck, is pointed to in the history of New Netherland as testimony to the degree of comfort with which the Dutch colonists of the period were familiar. The forty books, the eleven pictures, the five guns, the gun with the silver mounting, and the other arms; the silver cups, the spoons, the tankards, and the bowls; the thirty pewter plates; the agricultural and brewing implements; and the bedding and clothing; the satins, the grosgrain suits and gloves, have been taken as showing the superior manner in which the prominent citizens of the time lived. It is pointed out that the house was of stone, covered with tiles; that there were a tobacco-house and out-houses, and a large number of horses, cattle, and pigs. The books showed the serious reading of the day. There were two Bibles, Calvin's "Institutes," Luther's "Psalter," Luther's "Complete Catechism," the "Praise of Christ," the "Four Ends of Death," "Fifty Pictures of Death," and a number of biblical stories. Through the smoke of battle and the consternation of the Indian wars it is interesting to glimpse this little oasis of peace and intellectual striving over the Harlem and on the banks of the Aquahung, which before that time had known only the wigwam of the Red Man as the habitation of the brooding human spirit.

CHAPTER V

MANORS AND PATENTS

The word "manor" has a Latin root and the genealogy of the idea for which it stands may be presumed therefore to have had a Latin origin, using the term in the comparative sense, and a Norman-French channel of descent. In American law it stands for a tract of land occupied by tenants who pay a fee-farm rent to the proprietor. Specifically in New York it stood for a tract of land granted in colonial days either by patent or in confirmation of grants from the States-General of Holland to proprietors or patroons, who held by perpetual rent in money or in kind. The patroons were tenants *in capite* and had such manorial privileges as the right to hold a manorial court, to award fines, and to have waifs, estrays, and deodands. They had the right of subinfeudation, but their tenants did not. After the Revolution the State superseded the English king as lord, and the rents from the proprietors were from time to time commuted or released. In a few cases the rents, in money, in services, or in kind, from the subtenants continued to exist as rent charges upon the land. The old French word was "manoir," derived apparently from the Latin verb, "manere," having the sense of "to remain" or "to dwell."

Under the old law of Europe the manor consisted of a district of land held by some baron or man of worth by freehold tenure of the king or of some mesne lord, within which the lord of the manor exercises a certain jurisdiction in addition to his rights as landlord. The term "manor" to describe such a lordship did not come into use in England until some time after the Norman Conquest, but the institution is found in a less-developed form among the Anglo-Saxons. The typical manor in its later development consisted of two parts: (1) the inland (demesne) or home estate, which the lord held in his own hands, upon which his house was built, and which was farmed by non-free, peasant occupiers, and (2) the outland or geneatland, which was held, in part at least, by freemen as freehold tenants, holding of the lord at a rent, which might be money, or produce of the land, or military or other service. The tenants proper were freemen, but most of the occupiers who constituted the lord's dependents belonged to one or more of the classes of the unfree, such as the villeins, who constituted the bulk of the peasant population. These for the most part dwelt together in villages and lived ordinarily by agriculture. In

the view of certain authoritative historians there were in the beginning few manors, but that they gradually increased in number, until in the twelfth century the prevailing system of society, outside the boroughs or incorporated towns, was that of manors with dependent peasants. The Roman origin of the manor is obscure, but some authorities hold it to be due to the imposition of the system of the Roman villa on the servile population by the French invaders of England and other countries. Other authorities see in it a normal development of the village community. The lord of the manor might hold directly by grant of the king, who was, under the feudal system, the supreme landowner, the lord paramount, of all lands in the kingdom, in which case his customary jurisdiction, based upon and derived from the ancient customs of the manor, might be restricted or enlarged by royal grant; or he might hold under some mesne lord, who in his turn held the manor, together with other lands, directly of the crown. With the growth of the process of subinfeudation, that is, of the granting of lands by a tenant to be held of himself as overlord, the latter method of holding manors became common in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. When one lord held two or more manors, whether of the king or of a mesne lord, the entire estate was known as a lordship or honor.

The manor could be looked at from two points of view, the economic and the political. The manor has an estate for its basis, although it need not coincide with an estate, but may be wider. It is also a political unit, a district formed for purposes of government although the political functions made over to it may greatly vary. As a lordship based on land tenure, the manor necessarily comprised a ruler and a population dependent on him, and the characteristic trait of such dependance consisted not in ownership extending over persons, as in slave-holding communities, nor in contractual arrangements, as in a modern economic organization, but in various forms of subjection, chiefly regulated by custom. In this sense the manor occurred in every country in which feudalism got a hold. Under various names we find it not only in France, England, Germany, Italy, Spain, but also, to a certain extent, in the Byzantine Empire, Russia, Japan, and other countries. It is especially representative of an "aristocratic" stage in the development of European nations. When tribal notions and arrangements ceased to be sufficient for upholding their commonwealths, when social and political life had to be built up on the basis of land-tenure, the type of manorial organization came forward in natural course. It was closely connected with natural economy, and was suited to a narrow horizon of economic wants and political requirements. At the same time it provided links for a kind of national federation of military states.

Feudalism and the Manor—The full grown continental manor of the medieval period is better seen in France than elsewhere. Feudalism in France attained the greatest extension and the utmost regularity, while in other European countries it was hampered and intermixed with other institutional features. The expression best corresponding to the English "manor," in the sense of an organized district, was seigneurie. In principle the disruption of political life brought about by feudalism ought to have resulted in a complete administrative independence of the manor. "Chaque baron est souverain dans sa baronie" is a proverb meant to express this radical view of manorial separation. As a matter of fact this separation was never completely realized, and even at the time of the greatest prevalence of feudalism the little sovereigns of France were combined into a loose federation of independent fiefs. Still the problem was not a mere play of words and it took a long time for the kings of France to break in the local potentates. The institutional expression of this aspect of feudalism in the life of the seigneurie was the jurisdiction combined with the latter. The principal origin of the jurisdiction was the dismemberment of royal justice, the acquisition by certain landowners of the right of holding royal pleas. The assumption of authority over public tribunals of any kind was naturally considered as equivalent to such a transmission of royal right. But it was assumed by French feudal law that in all cases where land was granted by a seigneur in subinfeudation the recipients would be bound to appear as members of a court of tenants for the settlement of conflicts in regard to the land. There was also the extension of the patrimonial justice of a person over his serfs and personal dependents to the classes of free and half-free population connected with the seigneurie in one way or another. There arose in consequence of this assumption of jurisdiction a most bewildering confusion of tribunals and judicial rights. It happened sometimes that the question as to who should be judge in some particular contest was decided by matter-of-fact seizure—the holder of pleas who was the first on the spot to proclaim himself judge in a case was deemed entitled to jurisdiction. In other cases one seigneur held the pleas in a certain place for six days in the week, while some competitor of his possessed jurisdiction during the seventh.

The economic fabric of the French seigneurie varied greatly according to localities. In the north of France it was very much like that of the English manor, which derived from it. The capital messuage or castle, and the home-farm of the lord, were surrounded by dependent holdings, paying rent, and villein tenements burdened with services. Between these tenancies there were various ties of neighborhood and

economic solidarity, recalling the open field cultivation in England and Germany. When the harvest was removed from the open strips they returned to a stage of undivided pasture in which the householders of the village exercised rights of common with their cattle. Wild pastures and woods were used more or less in the same fashion as in England. The social relations between the manorial lord and his subjects were marked by various forms of the exploitation of the latter by the former. Apart from jurisdictional profits, rents and agricultural services, dues of all kinds were exacted from the rural population. Some of these dues have to be traced to servile origin, although they were evidently gradually extended to groups of people who were not descended from downright serfs but had lapsed into a state of considerable subjection. The main morte of rustic tenants meant that they had no goods of their own, but held movable property on sufferance without the right of passing it on to their successors. The formariage corresponded to the English merchetum, and was exacted from rustics on the marriage of their daughters. Although this payment assumed very different shapes, and sometimes only appeared in case consorts belonged to different lords, it was considered a badge of serfdom. As a person wielding political authority, a kind of sovereignty, the lord enjoyed divers rights which are commonly attributed to the state—the right of coining money, of levying direct taxes and toll, and of instituting monopolies. These latter were of common occurrence and might take the shape for instance of forcing the inhabitants to make use of the lord's mill, or of his oven, or of his bull.

Manors in England—In England the manor consisted partly of the houses of the inhabitants more or less closely clustered together and surrounded by arable land divided into large fields, two or three in number. The condition of the inhabitants of such a manor was complex. At the head of the community came the lord of the manor, with his hall, court, or manor-house, and the land immediately about it, and his demsene both in the fields and in the meadow land. Part of his demsene would be granted out to free tenants to hold at a rent or by military or other service; part would be in the lord's own hands, or cultivated by him. Below the lord and the free tenants came the villeins, natives, bondmen, or holders of virgates or yard lands, each holding a house, a fixed number of acre strips, a share of the meadow, and of the profits of the waste. In any one manor the holdings of all the villeins were equal. Normally the holder of a virgate was unfree; he had no rights in the eye of the law against his lord, who was protected from all suits by the *exceptio villenagii.* He could not without leave quit the manor, and could be reclaimed by process of law if he

did. The strict contention of the law deprived him of all right to hold property; and in many cases he was subject to certain degrading incidents, such as merchet (merchetum), a payment due to the lord upon the marriage of his daughter, which was regarded as a special mark of unfree condition. The hardship of his position lay in the services due from him. As a rule a villein paid for his holding in money, in labor, and in kind. The cotters were the poor of the manor, who held a cottage and garden, or perhaps one acre or a half acre in the fields. They were unfree in condition, and in most manors their services were modelled upon those of the villeins. From their ranks were usually drawn the shepherd, the bee-keeper, and other minor officials of the manor.

The most complicated structure in the system was the manor court. The complication was indeed partly the work of lawyers interpreting institutions they did not understand by formulae not adapted to describe them. But beyond this there remain the facts that the court was the meeting point of the lord and the tenants both free and unfree, that any question touching on the power and constitution of the court was bound to affect the interests of the lord and the tenants, and that there was no external power capable of settling such questions as did arise. In the beginning the manor court exercised its criminal, civil or manorial jurisdiction as one court; its name might differ, the parties before it might be free or unfree, but the court was the same. The court leet, the court baron, and the court customary were differentiations of a later date. The president of the court was the lord's steward; the bailiff was the lord's representative and the public prosecutor; and the tenants of the manor, both free and unfree, attended at the court and gave judgment in the cases brought before it. To modern ears the constitution sounds unfamiliar. The president of the court settled its procedure, carried it out, and gave the final sentence, but over the law of the court he had no power. All that is comprised in the word "judgment" was settled by the body of tenants present at the court. This attendance was indeed compulsory and absence subjected to a fine any tenant owing and refusing the service known as "suit of court." It might be asked who in these courts settled questions of fact. The answer must be that disputed questions of fact could only be settled in one way, by ordeal; and that in most manorial courts the method employed was the wager of law. The business of the court was criminal, manorial, and civil. Its powers under the first head depended on the franchises enjoyed by the lord in the particular manor; for the most part only petty offences were triable, such as small thefts, breaches of the assize of bread and ale, assaults, and the like; except under special

conditions the justice of great offenses remained in the king. But offenses against the custom of the manor, such as bad ploughing, improper taking of wood from the lord's woods, and the like, were of course the staple criminal business of the court. Under the head of manorial business the court dealt with the choice of the manorial officers, and had some power of making regulations for the management of the manor; but its most important function was the recording of the surrenders and admittances of the villein tenants. It is to be noted that the conveyance of a villein's holding was affected by the vendor surrendering his land to the lord, who thereupon admitted the purchaser to the holding. The history of the decay of the manorial jurisdiction in England has not yet been written. On the one hand were the king's courts, with new and improved processes of law; on the other hand the gradual disintegration which marks the history of the manor in the later medieval period. The criminal jurisdiction was the first to disappear, and was closely followed by the civil jurisdiction over the free tenants.

The Manor in America—The transition from this European idea of the manor to its American form in historic reality may perhaps best be indicated by citing some clauses out of the petition which the Walloons, who were the first settlers of New Netherland, but who in the beginning proposed making the voyage to Virginia, directed through Sir Dudley Carleton, British ambassador at The Hague, to the English king, and setting forth the terms and conditions under which they desired to undertake the enterprise. The petition contained seven articles specifying the details of the plan under which they desired to enter upon the work of colonization. In this document appears the earliest mention of the land tenure which the first colonists of New York asked for. It was that with which they were familiar and which they understood, and under which they had lived, and it was based on fealty, homage, and manorial rights, once fixed by Roman law but modified by the passage of time, and under which the West India Company was established in the new land as the embodiment of its government, and which governed it till the arrival of the English in 1664. The fifth and sixth articles of the petition which was couched in French, ran something as follows:

VI. Whether he (His Britannic Majesty) would grant them a township or territory, in the radius of eight English miles, or say, sixteen miles in diameter, which they might improve as fields, meadows, vineyards, and for other uses; which territory, whether conjointly or severally, they would hold from his Majesty upon fealty and homage; no others being allowed to dwell within the bounds of the said lands unless they shall have taken letters of citizenship; in which territory they would reserve to themselves inferior manorial rights; and whether it might

be permitted to those of their number who are entitled to maintain the rank of noblemen, to declare themselves such.

VII. Whether they would be permitted in the said lands to hunt all game whether furred or feathered, to fish in the sea and the rivers, to cut heavy timber, as well for ship building as for commerce, at their own will; in a word, whether they could make use of all things either above or beneath the ground, at their own pleasure and will, the royal rights reserved; and whether they could dispose of all things in trade with such persons as may be permitted them. Which provisions would extend only to said families and those belonging to them, without admitting those who might come afterwards to the said territory to avail themselves of the same, except so far as they might of their own power, grant this to them, and not beyond, unless his said Majesty should make a new grant to them.

Here we have the terms under which the earliest colonists began the actual settlement of the region known as New York, terms which they carried out, a little modified by the Dutch manorial system and rule. The West India Company by its charter was obliged to take measures for the development of the new province and the increase of its population. Militating against this was the great profit of the fur trade, which absorbed the general attention, and in addition there was the general apathy in Holland in respect to emigration, for the Dutch farmers and laborers were of opinion that they could do just as well at home as abroad and in many other respects would be better off also. "The colonizing such wild and uncultivated countries demands more inhabitants than we can well supply" says a report of the Assembly of XIX to the States-General in 1629; "not so much through lack of population, in which our provinces abound, as from the fact, that all who are inclined to do any sort of work here, procure enough to eat without any trouble; and are therefore unwilling to go far from home on an uncertainty." It was the recognition of facts such as these that brought about the plan giving special privileges, powers, and exemptions, to such members of the West India Company as would, at their own expense and risk, send out expeditions and establish separate and distinct plantations in any part of New Netherland, outside of Manhattan Island. It was thus that the Dutch manorial system was introduced into what is now The Bronx and other places, a system that received its final elaboration and modification in June, 1629, when it was approved and adopted by the Assembly of the XIX, and ratified and confirmed by their High Mightinesses, the States-General. The plan or charter was entitled:

FREEDOMS AND EXEMPTIONS
Granted by the Assembly of the XIX, of the
Privileged West India Company, To All
Such as Shall Plant any Colonies
in New Netherland.

It consisted of thirty-one articles and was printed in a small quarto pamphlet of four or six pages and distributed throughout the United Provinces in 1630. It is the first instrument under which lands in the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Connecticut, were acquired, and on which titles rest. It opens up by saying that such members of the said company as may be inclined to settle any colonie, meaning a plantation or settlement, in New Netherland, shall be permitted to send in the ships of this company going thither, three or four persons to inspect the situation of the country, provided that they, with the officers and ship's company, swear to the articles, so far as they they relate to them and pay certain sums for provisions and passage.

Article XIX says:

> They (the Company) will not take from the service of the Patroons any of their colonists, either man or woman, son or daughter, man-servant or maid-servant; and though any of them should desire the same, they will not receive them, or permit them to leave their Patroons and enter into the service of another, unless on consent obtained from their Patroons in writing; and this for and during so many years as they are bound to their Patroons; after the expiration whereof, it shall be in the power of the Patroons to send hither all such colonists as will not continue in their own service, and until then shall not enjoy their liberty. And all such colonists as shall leave the service of their Patroons and enter into the service of another, or shall, contrary to his contract, leave his service; we promise to do everything in our power to apprehend and deliver the same into the hands of his Patroon, or attorney, that he may be proceeded against, according to the customs of the country as occasion may require.

These clauses give us an idea of the degree of power and authority delegated to the Patroons, a power and authority clearly greatly circumscribed in comparison with the absolutism of the lord of the manor in the height of the feudal period. It is to be noted that in the first article of the plan or charter the privilege of becoming patroons, with all their rights, powers and exemptions, hereditary and otherwise, was confined solely to the members, that is, the stockholders of the West India Company. Other persons, however, could, with the permission of the Director and Council of New Netherland, take up as much land as they could improve, "and enjoy the same in full property either for themselves or others," but without any of the advantages and privileges conferred upon the Patroons. They were styled Free Colonists. Under these clauses the colonizing of the territory of New Netherland was begun.

Manors and Patents—The erection of manors by the English in New York, like the creation of patroonships by the Dutch in the same province, was simply the establishment and carrying out of what they

deemed the best method of promoting the growth and development of their new possessions under their own laws and customs. To the same purpose may be attributed the granting of similar large tracts of land which were not manors. The latter, the "Great Patents," as they were called, were usually granted to several grantees. The manors were necessarily granted to one only. The franchises, privileges, and other valuable incidents, which the manor possessed, and which the Great Patents did not possess, were fewer than is generally supposed. The tenure of both classes of these crown grants was the same, being "in free and common socageas of the Manor of East Greenwich in the county of Kent." The greatest difference between them lay in the peculiar public incidents, as they have been called, which constituted a manor, incidents essential to its existence, and which related more to the government and good order of the territory of the manor, and the protection of the manor, than to power and profit of the lord of the manor. Tenants could, and did, take up lands under the grantees of the Great Patents, as well as under the lords of the manors. The former could, and did, settle people upon their Patents under leases, as well as deeds in fee, just as the latter did upon their manors. Both classes of proprietors sold in fee, or granted on leases of different kinds, just as their wishes or interests dictated. The Great Patents, their grantees, and the inhabitants upon them, were subject, in general and local matters, to whatever public territorial divisions of the province embraced them, and the laws in force therein. The manors, their lords, and their inhabitants, whether tenants, or holders in fee simple, of manor lands by purchase from the lords, were subject only to the jurisdiction and course of the manor in local matters. Both, in all matters not local, were governed by the law courts and the civil and military authorities, of the county and the province. There were in the country of Westchester six manors, which together comprised the larger part of its area. The Great Patents were more numerous, but together not so extensive in area. These latter and the borough-town of Westchester, with a few small original grants, formed the rest of the county as it was originally. The lower part of the "Equivalent lands" or "The Oblong," received in settlement of a boundary dispute from the colony of Connecticut was not added to the county till the year 1731, and this too, was then embraced in a single great patent.

Manors in Westchester County—The manors were those of "Cortlandt," "Scarsdale," "Pelham," "Morrisania," "Fordham," and "Philipseborough" or "Philipseburgh." Of these Cortlandt and Philipseburgh were much the largest. In the year 1769 it is calculated that one-third of the population of the county lived on the two manors of Cortlandt

and Philipseburgh. The manors of Fordham, Morrisania, Pelham and Scarsdale, lying nearer to the city of New York than these two, and more accessible than either, were more settled. It is estimated that five-eighths of the population of Westchester County in 1769 were inhabitants of the six manors that have been named. As the people on the manors were free of personal jury duty the fact threw upon the rest of the county an increased burden. The "burgess" or representative of the Borough of Westchester in the Assembly in 1769 was John de Lancy of Rosehill, Fordham Manor. He sought to bring about some relief for the non-manorial inhabitants of the county and brought the matter before the Assembly.

The manors of Westchester in the order of their erection were: "Fordham" in November, 1671, "Pelham" in October, 1687, "Philipseburgh" in June, 1693, "Morrisania" in May, 1697, "Cortlandt" in June, 1697, and "Scarsdale" in March, 1700. As the Manor of Cortlandt comprised the whole northern part of the county from the Hudson to the Connecticut line, and was ten miles in width, it stood first in the order of importance. The authority of the Governor, as Governor, of the Governor and Council in the executive capacity of the latter, and of the Governor, Council in its legislative capacity, and the General Assembly, the three together forming the legislature of the Province, extended throughout the manors of New York in all respects save one. Neither of these authorities could in any way alter, abridge or interfere with the franchises, rights, powers, privileges, and incidents of the manors. This was a matter in their own discretion, but none of them could become void by non-user, nor could the Province authorities of any grade modify them in any way. If the lords preferred or had no objection to have any local duties, legal acts, or offices, exercised by justices of the peace, assessors, constables, and other minor officers, either chosen by their tenants alone, or by their tenants in connection with the inhabitants, freeholders of any adjoining non-manorial lands, this could be done by an act of the provincial legislature. But no act of such a nature could be passed against their wishes. The jurisdiction of the Supreme Court, of the Inferior Court of Common Pleas, and of the Court of Sessions, extended to all lands whether manorial or non-manorial. So too in the matter of elections, the inhabitants of the manors, with the exception of that of Cortlandt which had a representative of its own as a franchise of its manor-grant, united with the people of the non-manorial lands in the choice of members of the Assembly for the county.

Brouncksland as Manor—Brouncksland was a manor in an inchoate form. Its boundaries are hard to determine, though the northern line

probably did not extend beyond 150th Street. To the east the land extended to Bungay Creek; and to the south, to the Harlem River and the Bronx Kills. The site of Bronk's house became that of Colonel Lewis Morris, and later of the manor-house. In the southwest corner of the West Farms strip was a small tract the ownership of which was in dispute between the heirs of the patentees and the Morrises from 1666 to 1740, when the manor-lord of Morrisania obtained possession. As there were a number of streams in that locality, the question arose as to which was the Sackwrahung. The West Farms people claimed that it was Bungay Creek, or Brook; Colonel Morris that it was the stream to the eastward, called Wigwam Brook, and later, Leggett's Creek and Bound Brook. The disputed strip was long known as the "debateable land." During Dutch possession comparatively little was done in the way of development. A settlement grew at Harlem on Manhattan Island, and it is not unlikely that some of the farmers occupied land on the mainland. Thus we have the court records of a dispute in 1683 with the Jansen brothers and Daniel Turneur as plaintiffs against Colonel Lewis Morris, for four lots of meadowland at Stony Island, now Port Morris, which they had cultivated under previous owners of Brouncksland. The plaintiffs were inhabitants of Harlem. They lost their first suit when the Jansens withdrew. Turneur then entered suit alone against Colonel Morris and was finally successful in proving ownership of the disputed land.

At the time of the English occupation the land on the Maine has been thus described. On the west lying between the Hudson and the Bronx rivers was Colen Donck; next came Brouncksland, between the Harlem and the Bronx; next to the eastward came West Farms; east of this tract was Cornell's Neck; adjoining it on the north was Oestdorp, or Westchester; beyond on the Sound was Throgg's Neck; and north of Westchester was Pell's purchase of 1654. A portion of the Keskeskeck purchase of 1639 seems not to have been taken up. By an instrument dated August 10, 1670, Samuel Edsall conveyed Brouncksland to Richard Morris, and Lewis Morris. In 1676 Colonel Morris received from Governor Andros a patent confirming his title to the land, and in addition to all the lands lying adjacent to Brouncksland, "not included in any grants or patents, which land the said Colonel Morris doth desire for further improvement." This additional land was by survey fourteen hundred acres, which, with the addition of Brouncksland, made the whole estate 1,920 acres. The quit-rent was a yearly payment of "five bushels of winter wheat." The bounds on the north were the lands of Daniel Turneur and John Archer; on the east the land of John Richardson and Thomas Hunt; on the southeast the Sound or

East River; on the west, the Harlem River. We thus see that Brouncksland became incorporated in Morrisania and may be described as the heart of the manor.

Manor Grant of Morrisania—The manor-grant of Morrisania is worded in part as follows:

William the Third, by the grace of God, of England, Scotland, France and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, etc., to all to whom these presents shall come, sendeth greeting: Whereas the Hon'ble Edmund Andros, Esq., Siegneur of Sausmarez, late governor of our province of New York, etc., by a certain deed or patent, sealed with the seal of our said province of New York, bearing date the 25th day of March, in the year of our Lord 1676, pursuant to the commission and authority then in him residing, did confirm unto Col. Lewis Morris, of the Island of the Barbadoes, a certain plantation or tract of land laying or being upon the maine over against the town, of Haerlem, commonly called Bronckse's land, containing 250 morgen or 800 acres of land, besides the meadow thereunto annexed or adjoining, butted and bounded as in the original Dutch ground brief and patent of confirmation is set forth; which said tract of land and meadow, having been by the said Col. Lewis Morris long possessed and enjoyed, and having likewise thereon made good improvement, he, the said Edmund Andros, late governor of our said province, did further, by the said deed or patent, sealed with the seal of our said province, and bearing date as aforesaid, we grant and confirm unto the said Col. Lewis Morris, for his further improvement, a certain quantity of land adjacent unto the said tract of land—which land with the addition being bounded from his own house over against Haerlem, running up Haerlem River to Daniel Turneur's land, and so along this said land northward to John Archer's line, and from thence stretching east to the land of John Richardson and Thomas Hunt, and thence along their lands southward to the Sound, even so along the Sound about southwest through Bronck's hill to the said Col. Lewis Morris' house—the additional land containing (according to the survey thereof) the quantity of fourteen hundred and twenty acres, to have and to hold the afore-recited tract of land before possessed by him, and the additional land within the limits and bounds aforesaid, together with the woods and meadows, both salt and fresh waters and creeks, belonging to the said lands, unto the said Col. Lewis Morris, his heirs and assignees forever, under the yearly rent of four bushels of good winter wheat, as by the said deed or patent, registered in our secretary's office of our said province of New York, etc.,—relation being thereunto had—may fully and at large appear. And whereas, our loving subject, Lewis Morris (nephew unto the said Col. Morris, lately deceased, his sole and only heir), who is now, by right of descent and inheritance, peacably and quietly seized and possessed of all the aforesaid tracts of land and premises within the limits and bounds aforesaid, hath, by his petition, presented unto our trusty and well-beloved Benj. Fletcher, our Captain General and Governor-in-chief of our said province of New York and territories dependent thereon in America, etc., prayed our grant and confirmation of all the aforesaid tracts and parcels of land and premises within the limits and bounds aforesaid; and likewise that we would be graciously pleased to erect the said tracts and parcels of land, within the limits and bounds aforesaid, into a lordship or manor, by the name or title of the manor or lordship of Morrisania, in the county of Westchester; and whereas it is publicly manifest that the said Col. Lewis Morris, deceased, in his lifetime, and our said loving subject, his nephew and sole and only heir since

his decease, have been at great charge and expense in the purchasing, handling, and improving of the said tracts and parcels of land, whereon considerable buildings have likewise been made; and our said loving subject, being willing still to make further improvements thereon—which reasonable request for his further encouragement we being willing to grant; and know yee, that we, of our special grace, certain knowledge, and mere motion, we have given, granted, ratified and confirmed, and by these presents do for us, our heirs and successors, give, grant, ratify and confirm, unto the said Lewis Morris, his heirs and assignees, all of the aforesaid tracts and parcels of land within the limits and bounds aforesaid, containing the quantity of one thousand, nine hundred and twenty acres of land, more or less, together with all and every the messuages, tenements, buildings, houses, out houses, barns, barracks, stables, mills, mill dams, mill howles, orchards, gardens, fences, pastures, fields, feedings, woods, underwoods, trees, timber, meadows, (fresh and salt), marchses, swamps and pools, ponds, waters, water courses, brooks, rivulets, baths, inlets, outlets, islands, necks of land and meadow, peninsulas of land and meadow, ferries, passages, fishing, fowling, hunting and hawking, quarries, mines, minerals, (silver and gold mines excepted), and all the rights, liberties, privileges, jurisdictions, royalties, hereditaments, benefits, profits, advantages and appurtenancies, whatsoever to the afore-recited tracts, parcels and necks of land, and mill, within the limits and bounds aforesaid belonging, adjoining, or in any way appertaining or accepted, reputed, taken, known or occupied, as part, parcel or member thereof, to have or to hold all the aforesaid recited tracts and parcels of land, within the limits and bounds aforesaid, containing the quantity of one thousand, nine hundred and twenty acres of land, more or less, together with all and every the messuages, tenements, buildings, houses, out houses, barns, barracks, stables, mills, mill dams, mill houses, orchards, gardens, fences, pastures, fields, feedings, woods, underwoods, trees, timber, meadows, fresh and salt, marshes, swamps, and so on. It goes on: If our further special grace, certain knowledge, and clear motion we have brought it according to reasonable request of our said loving subject to erect all the afore-recited tracts and parcels of land and premises within limits and bounds aforesaid into a lordship and manor, and therefore, by these presents, we do, for us, our heirs and successors, erect, make, and constitute all the afore-recited tracts and parcels of land and premises within limits and bounds aforesaid into a lordship and manor, and therefore, by these presents, we do, for us, our heirs and successors, erect, make and constitute, all the afore-recited tracts and parcels of land within the limits and bounds aforesaid, together with all and every the above granted premises, with all and every of their appurtenances, into one lordship and manor, to all intents and purposes, and 'tis our royal will and pleasure, that the said lordship and manor shall from henceforth be called the lordship and manor of Morrisania; and know yee, that we reposing special trust and confidence in the loyalty, wisdom, justice, prudence, and circumspection, of our said loving subjects, do, for us, our heirs and successors, give and grant unto the said Lewis Morris and to the heirs and assignees of him the said Lewis Morris, full power and authority at all times hereafter, in the said lordship and manor, one court leet, and one court barron, to be holden within the said lordship or manor, to be set, forfeited, or employed, or payable or happening at any time to be payable by any of the inhabitants of or in the said lordship or manor of Morrisania, or the limits and bounds whereof, and also all and every of the power and authority therein-before mentioned, for the holding and keeping of the said court-leet and court barron from time to time, and to award and issue out the said accustomary writs, to be issued and awarded out of the said court-leet and

court barron, to be kept by the heirs and assignees of the said Lewis Morris, forever, or their or any of their stewards deputed and appointed with full and ample power and authority in destraine for the rents, serveses, and other sums of money, payable by virtue of the premises and all other lawful remedies and means, for the having, possessing, recovering, levying, and enjoying the premises, and every part and parcel of the same, and all waifs, estrages, meeks, deadodans, goods or felons, happening and being forfeited within the said lordship or manor of Morrisania, and all and every sum and sums of money to be paid as a post fine, upon any fine or fines to be levied, of any bounds, tenements, or hereditaments, within the said lordship or manor of Morrisania, together with the advowson and right of patronage, and all and every the church and churches erected or established, or thereafter to be erected or established within the said manor of Morrisania, and we do also give and grant unto the said Lewis Morris, his heirs and assignees, that all and each of the tenants of him the said Lewis Morris, within the said manor, may at all times hereafter, meet together and choose assessors, within the manor aforesaid, according to such rules, ways and methods, as are prescribed for cities, towns and counties within our said province aforesaid, by the acts of general assembly for the defraying of the public charge, of each respective city, town and county aforesaid, and all such sums of money assessed or levied, to dispose of and collect for such uses as the acts of general assembly shall establish and appoint, to have and to hold, possess and enjoy, all and singular the said lordship or manor of Morrisania and premises, with all their and every of their appurtenances, unto the said Lewis Morris, his heirs and assignees forever, to be holden of us, our heirs and successors, in free and common socage, according to the tenure of our manor of East Greenwich, in our county of Kent, within our realm of England, yielding, rendering and paying therefor, yearly and every year, on the feast day of the Annunciation of our blessed virgin, unto us, our heirs and successors, at our city of New York, the annual rent of six shillings, in lieu and stead of all former rents, dues, services, and demands whatsoever, for the said lordship and manor of Morrisania, and premises; in testimony whereof, we have caused the great seal of the said province to be affixed. Witness our trusty and well beloved Benjamin Fletcher, our capt. gen. and gov. in-chief of our province of New York, and territories and tacts of land depending thereon, in America, and vice-admiral of the same, our lieutenant commander-in-chief of the militia and all the forces by sea and land within our colony of Connecticut, and all the forts and places of strength within the same, in council at our fort in New York, the 8th day of May, in the ninth year of our reign, Anno Domini, 1697.

By command of his excellency,

Ben. Fletcher

David Jamieson, Sec'y.

The Morris Family—This charter erecting the manor of Morrisania may be taken as typical of the charters granted in the erection of the other local manors. The first lord of the manor of Morrisania, Lewis Morris, second of the name, died in the spring of 1746, aged seventy-three, so that he was born in the year 1677. By his will he directed that he should be buried at Morrisania, and that his funeral should be conducted in a manner that was Quakerish in its simplicity. He prohibited "any mourning dress to be worn on his account, as he should die when Divine Providence should call him away, and was unwilling

that his friends should be at unnecessary expense, which was owing solely to the common folly of mankind." To his son Lewis he left all that part of the manor lying east of the Mill Brook; to his wife, Isabella Graham, the remainder of the estate, lying westward of the Mill Brook, called "Old Morrisania"; and to his second son, Robert Hunter Morris, he bequeathed his New Jersey estates.

Following the death of his mother, Lewis Morris, third of the name, became possessed of the whole manor. He was married twice, his first wife being Elizabeth Staats, by whom he had three sons: Lewis, the Signer of the Declaration of Independence, Staats Long, a general in the British army, who married Catherine, Duchess of Gordon, whose son was the instigator of the "Gordon riots" described in Dickens' "Barnaby Rudge," and Richard Morris, who married into the Ludlow family, and who was a judge of the Court of Admiralty at the outbreak of the war. The second wife of Lewis Morris was Sarah Gouverneur, by whom he had one son, Gouverneur Morris, and four daughters, one of whom, Isabella, became the wife of the Reverend Isaac Wilkins. Lewis Morris, the third, died in 1762, at the age of sixty-four. By his will, dated November 19, 1760, he bequeathed to his eldest son, Lewis, "all that part of Morrisania west of the Mill Brook"; to his wife, "the land upon which my house stands west of the Mill Brook"; and to his other sons, the remaining part of the manor. He also directed that his son, Gouverneur, was to have the best education "that was to be had in England or America." The legacy of the land to the west of the Mill Brook carried with it the right to the use of the stream for milling and other purposes, so that the east bank really became the boundary. It is a curious fact that today in consequence the purchaser of a lot which lies on both sides of the bed of the former stream, that is that would be crossed by the stream if it existed, is obliged to get a quit-claim, or release, of the brook from the descendants of the original legatee, in order that the title shall be clear and above reproach.

Lewis Morris became the manor-lord and continued so until after the Revolution. Upon the breaking out of hostilities he became a brigadier-general in the American army, but, early in the war, he resigned his position to become a member of the Continental Congress; and as such his name is affixed as a signer of the Declaration, as a delegate from New York. His brother, Staats Long, refused to perform service in America against his countrymen and remained in England during the whole war, notwithstanding which he rose to high rank in the British service before his death. The manor-house of Lewis Morris, west of the Mill Brook, stood until about 1891, when it was demolished by the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad in making improvements

for the suburban branch along the Harlem River and Bronx Kills. It stood west of Brook Avenue, and was known as "Christ's Hotel."

Gouverneur Morris—The most conspicuous member of the Morris family was Gouverneur Morris, who was born at Morrisania, January 31, 1752. As a boy he went for instruction to Dominie Tetard from whom he acquired a thorough knowledge and control of the French language, as well as of other matters. In accordance with his father's directions he received the best education to be obtained in America, and was graduated from King's College in 1768 at the age of sixteen. Subsequently he studied law and became one of the ablest and most brilliant lawyers in America. Upon the approach of hostilities he became a member of the Provincial Congress, and on July 8, 1775, a member of the Committee of Safety of Westchester County. During the whole of the struggle with Great Britain he was in the active service of his country, serving it in a political capacity. He was a close friend and confidant of Washington; and between him and Hamilton there existed the strongest friendship until the tragic death of the latter. The oration over the body of Hamilton, an oration famous for its power and pathos, was pronounced by Gouverneur Morris. Morris was a member of Congress during the war, and he was also a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1787. As a member of the latter body he framed the final draft of the Constitution as submitted to the States for ratification; and the beautiful, clear and forceful English of that instrument is almost entirely his work. He was a Federalist in politics, and assisted Jay and Hamilton with tongue and pen, until his departure for Europe, in striving for the ratification of the Constitution by the several States. As a statesman, Morris ranked with these two famous Federalists, in the judgment of some; as a financier, he ranked after the financier of the Revolution, Robert Morris, whose assistant he had been, and after Alexander Hamilton, the first great Secretary of the Treasury.

Gouverneur Morris was a man of brilliant parts, with a rough, caustic tongue and pen which made him many enemies. Washington esteemed his patriotism highly and admired his directness and good judgment, but declined to appoint him on some diplomatic misson for fear his manner would defeat the object of the mission by arousing the ire of those whom he would meet and whom it would be his duty to conciliate. He believed in calling a spade a spade. Even in that time of easy morals Morris was conspicuous for his disregard of the opinions of the respectable portion of the community and liked to shock people with his vagaries. One of his fads was to drive a pair of spirited horses without reins. Though repeatedly warned by his friends of the danger

of doing so he continued to laugh at their misgivings until one day in May, 1780, when his team ran away with him in the streets of Philadelphia and one leg was crushed so badly that the surgeons thought it necessary to amputate it; in consequence for the rest of his life Morris was obliged to hobble around on a wooden leg. A religious friend called upon him one day to sympathize with him on the loss of his leg, and to tell him it was all for the best, as it was an act of divine wisdom; to whom Morris replied: "My good sir, you argue the matter so handsomely, and point out so clearly the advantages of being without legs, that I am almost tempted to part with the other." During the war his mother remained a loyalist and occupied the manor-house in New York. He did not see her for seven years; but during that time, both he and his half-brother, Lewis, corresponded with her whenever opportunity offered, an act which called forth the denunciations of their enemies, who even impugned their loyalty to the cause for which they were both doing so much. In 1788 Morris left for an extended tour of Europe, and was in Paris during the events preceding the French Revolution. His advice was sought by Louis XVI and his ministers, and he drew up for the French king an address from the throne.

Morris was at last made minister to the Court of Versailles, and he remained in Paris during the period of the Reign of Terror, being the only foreign representative that did so. After his supersession as minister by Monroe in August, 1794, at the request of the Directory as a set-off to Genet's recall, Morris made an extended tour of Europe. In Austria he tried to secure the release of Lafayette; but though unsuccessful, he procured for the marquis many privileges that tended to mitigate the tedium of confinement. He was United States Senator from the State of New York from 1799 to 1803, but upon the defeat of the Federalists by the Democratic-Republicans under Jefferson, he withdrew from politics taking a pessimistic view of the future of the country. Morris was probably the first to advance the idea of connecting the harbor of New York with the great inland seas by means of an artificial waterway, and he foresaw in part the immense trade that would accrue to the city as a result. Morris was opposed to Governor George Clinton politically, but the governor appointed Morris one of the members of the first commission to inquire into the feasibility of the Erie Canal and to superintend its construction. The Gouverneur Morris house, to which many additions had been made by the builder's successors, commanded a magnificent view of the East River to the south, overlooking Bronx Kills and Randall's Island. The rooms were large and lofty, and upon the floors were the marks made by Morris's wooden leg. Some weak efforts were made at one time to preserve

the house as a museum and the grounds in which it was situated as a public park; but about 1905 the property was secured by the railroad and the historic mansion was demolished.

Manor of Fordham—The manor grant of Fordham was made in 1671 when Francis Lovelace was governor of New York and bears his signature. The manor never constituted a township by itself, having first been incorporated in the township of Westchester by the Act of 1788, and later, within the township of West Farms when it was formed in 1846. It lies so close to Kingsbridge it is sometimes difficult to differentiate in describing the two. On the Harlem River, Fordham extends as far south as Highbridge, and on the Bronx, it lies between West Farms and Williamsbridge. Within this area there grew up a number of villages, Fordham, South Fordham, Tremont, East Tremont, Belmont, South Belmont, Mount Hope, Mount Eden, Monterey, Fordham Heights, Bedford Park, and Williamsbridge. The Harlem Railroad traverses it to its northeast corner and the Central Railroad passes along its western boundary, the Harlem River. Trolley lines radiate from its different bridges. From Kingsbridge we may gain the top of the Fordham ridge by means of the old Boston Road, which passed through the northern edge of the manor for the greater part of its length to Williamsbridge, thence to Eastchester, or we may take Bailey Avenue, running parallel to the railroad tracks, and ascend to Sedgwick Avenue by means of the Kingsbridge Road, or by means of Bailey Avenue itself to Fordham Road.

South of Fort Independence is Tetard's Hill, which gets its name from Dominie Tetard, who bought a farm of sixty acres lying south of the Boston Road from Peter Vermilye, in 1763, and who went to live there about three years later. He served through the Revolution, and after its conclusion became professor of French in the reorganized King's College, which became Columbia in 1784. He held this position until his death, in 1787, at the age of sixty-five. Trace of the dominie has disappeared apart from the name of the hill; though, until the cutting through of some new streets some years ago, there stood an old stone archway the real purpose of which was unknown but which was called "Dominie Tetard's Wine Cellar." Under the edge of the hill, probably on the line of Bailey Avenue, there is the site of the ancient village of Fordham. Just a mile south of Fort Independence are the remains of Fort Number Five, a few rods east of Sedgwick Avenue at the southwest corner of the reservoir. Its position was well selected, as it is within plain view of Number Four, besides commanding the Farmers' Bridge, which crossed the Harlem River at West Kingsbridge Road, Bronx, and West 225th Street, Manhattan.

The Fordham grant goes back to within a few years following the fall of New Amsterdam. Some time before 1666 the widow of Adriaen Van Der Donck married Hugh O'Neale, of Patuxent, Maryland, and went there to live. On September 21, 1666,

"Came Hugh O'Neale and Mary his wife (who in right of her former husband laid claime to a certn parcele of land upon the Maine, not farre from Westchester, commonly called the Younckers land), who bro't severall Indyans before the govr to acknowledge the purchase of said lands by van der Donck commonly called ye Youncker . . . . Tackarack, ... Claes, ... received satisfactn of Van Der Donck. All the rest of the Indyans present being seven or eight acknowledged to have recd full satisfaction."

The evidence of possession by Indian title being thus before Governor Nicolls he issued to Hugh and Mary O'Neale as joint patentees, under date of October 8, 1666, a confirmatory grant of Nepperhaem. As the descriptions of the bounds of the grant are the same in the Indian's acknowledgement, in the confirmatory patent and in the original Dutch grant of 1646, we must conclude that the property was intact as Van Der Donck bought it and was as he left it at his death. On October 30 of the same year, the two patentees transferred their right, title, and interest in the grant to Elias Doughty of Long Island, a brother of Mrs. O'Neale, and then returned to Maryland. Doughty began to sell the land in parcels to different purchasers in fee. The first sale was made March 1, 1667, to Jan Arcer, or John Archer, of eighty acres of upland and thirty acres of meadow, "betwixt Broncx river & ye watering place at ye end of ye Island of Manhattans." June 7, 1668, Doughty sold 320 acres to John Heddy, or Hadden—this is now a part of Van Cortlandt Park. On July 6, 1668, Doughty sold to George Tippett (also spelt Tippit and Tibbett) and also William Betts

"a parcel of land and meadow . . . . formerly owned by old Youncker (sic) van der Donck, which runs west of Hudson's river & east to Broncks River, with all the upland from Broncks River south to Westchester Path, & so runs due east, and north beginning at the boggy swamp within the liberty of the said Patent & the southernmost bound to run by the path that runneth and lyeth by the north end of the aforesaid swamp, and so run due east to Bronckes River, & due west to the meadow which cometh to the wading place."

On December 1, 1670, a third parcel of Colen Donck was sold to Francis French and Ebenezer Jones of Ann Hook's Neck and John Westcott of Jamaica, Long Island—this is the tract known as the Mile Square in the city of Yonkers, famous in Revolutionary annals. Later Doughty sold the northern portions of the patent to Dame Margaret

Philipse and Dirk Smith. Finally, September 29, 1672, he sold the remainder of the tract, consisting of 7,708 acres, to Frederick Philipse, Thomas Delavall, and Thomas Lewis. Jan Archer, the first purchaser from Doughty, was probably an inhabitant of Westchester, as the name appears in the records of that town. He was probably of Dutch extraction, though Bolton gives an elaborate genealogy from Fulbert L'Archer, one of the companions of William the Conqueror. He married an English wife and later his name was Anglicised into Archer. In addition to the Doughty tract he acquired other lands from the Indians to the westward of the Bronx; and was such a land-grabber that the Dutch nicknamed him Koopall or "Buy All." On the question of land he might appropriately be termed the Astor of the seventeenth century. He established a dorp, or village, in the northwest corner of his land, opposite the eastern entrance of Spuyten Duyvil Creek, about where the Kingsbridge station of the Putnam Railroad is now located. It consisted of one street running north and south on the line of the old Boston Road and Bailey Avenue leading to Fordham Heights. As on May 3, 1669, Governor Lovelace gave Archer leave to settle sixteen families on the mainland, "near the wading place," it must have become a village of several houses, though there has remained no vestige of them. The lessees of the farms were principally from Harlem; and it would appear from the contemporary court records that Archer was almost continuously in trouble with his tenants and neighbors. Thus, on one date, September 8, 1671, no fewer than four cases were brought against him—his offenses including the mowing of grass on another man's plantation, the breaking down of some one else's fences, the throwing the furniture of a third out-of-doors, and other incidents of trespass and interference. Archer was thus apparently a rather obstreperous individual and a hard driving business man. The Harlem records show that he gave three mortgages to Cornelius Steenwyck, who appears from the records of Westchester County to have advanced money to other landowners of the county. Finally, to escape the interference of the Harlem magistrates and the better to secure his purchases from Doughty and the Indians, he procured from Governor Lovelace a manor grant under date of November 13, 1671. The manor was to be held upon the payment of an annual quit-rent of "twenty bushels of good peas, upon the first day of March, when it shall be demanded." The name given to the manor was Fordham; the ford or wading place being at "ye passage commonly called Spiting Devil."

The Pelham Manor—Pelham is situated to the southeast of New Rochelle. It has for its southern boundary Long Island Sound. A small stream called by the Indians the Aqueanouncke, and by the

English, Hutchinson's River, separates it from East Chester. It appears to have been purchased from the Indians some time previous to the year 1666 by Thomas Pell, and by him called Pelham. By Governor Nicholls it was granted and confirmed in 1666, "To Thomas Pell, Esq., of Fairfield in Connecticut, together with the island adjacent and all its privileges," and erected into "an enfranchised township or manor," and secured to him and his heirs. Thomas Pell, the first proprietor of the township, appears to have been an adherent of the popular party in the great struggle between the Parliament and the crown. Having been identified with the Puritans under the protectorship of Cromwell, after the restoration of the monarchy in 1660, he fled from the vengeance of the royalists in France. He afterwards removed to Onckaway, or Fairfield, in Connecticut, and from thence went to Pelham, where he purchased from the Indians the right to the soil. After his death which took place about 1680 the manorial proprietorship descended to John Pell, his nephew, son of the famous Dr. Pell, ambassador of Oliver Cromwell to the Swiss Cantons. In 1691 the name of John Pell is found on the list of members returned by the sheriff to represent the county of Westchester, New York.

The region within the limits of Pelham was claimed both by the Dutch of New Amsterdam and the colony of Connecticut. In the year of 1634 Thomas Pell bought from the Indians, so stating in his testimony before a Court of Assize, held in New York, September 29, 1665—the title to the lands afterwards known as Pelham, Westchester, and New Rochelle. This whole tract of land was originally included in the grant made by the Indians to the Dutch West India Company in the year 1640. What Pell paid to the Indians for it does not clearly appear. Probably not so much as the Dutch paid them twenty years before for the whole of Manhattan Island. "A valuable consideration" are Pell's own words. In the year 1666 Pell's title was confirmed by royal grant, issued by Governor Nicholls, in part as follows:

Governor Nicholls, Esq.,

Governor under His Royal Highness the Duke of York, of all his Territories in America. To all to whom these presents shall come, sendeth greeting: Whereas, there is a certain Tract of Land, within this Government upon the Main situate, lying and being to the Eastward of West Chester bounds, bounded to the Westward with the river, called by the Indians "Aqueanouncke," commonly known by the English by the name of Hutchinson's River, which runneth into the Bay lying between Throgmorton's Neck and Ann Hook's Neck, commonly called Hutchinson's Bay, bounded on the East by a brook called the Cedar Tree Brook, or Gravelly Brook, on the South by the Sound which lieth between Long Island and the mainland, with all the islands in the Sound not already granted or otherwise disputed of, lying before that tract of land so bounded, as is before expressed, and Northward to run into the woods about eight English miles in breadth, as

the bounds to the Sound, which said tract of land hath heretofore been purchased of the Indian proprietors, and ample satisfaction given for the same.

This grant to Thomas Pell was confirmed to his successor and heir, John Pell, on October 20, 1687, by the then governor of New York, Thomas Dongan.

In the year 1689, John Pell sold to the Huguenots of New Rochelle through the agency of Governor Leisler, a tract of land consisting of six thousand one hundred acres, from the Manor of Pelham, for the sum of about one dollar per acre. The one hundred acres was a free gift to the French Huguenot Church, erected or to be erected by the inhabitants. The Manor of Pelham had originally contained nine thousand one hundred and sixty-six acres so that nearly two-thirds of it constitute the town of New Rochelle. The islands in the Sound opposite Pelham belong to the town. These are Minneford's, now City Island, containing about two hundred and fifty acres; and Hart Island, with eighty-five acres. The death of John Pell, nephew and heir of Thomas Pell, occurred in 1700, according to the inscription on his monument. He is said to have lost his life by the upsetting of a boat off City Island in the autumn of that year. His eldest son, Thomas, succeeded to the inheritance, and died in 1739, at the Manor House. In October, 1776, the British forces landed on Pelham Neck, ten days prior to the battle of White Plains. They came from Throgmorton's, now Throgg's Neck. They were met by the Americans and a heavy skirmish resulted. After some loss the Americans fell back, and the British advanced towards New Rochelle. Though largely outnumbered the retreat of the Americans was orderly and their resistance obstinate. The loss would appear to have been about equal. The owners of the islands along the Pelham shore suffered more severely from this invasion than the people in the interior, because a portion of the British fleet was always anchored in the Sound, and boats were constantly landing to obtain supplies, which they often and probably unintentionally forgot to pay for. One Benjamin Palmer, who lived on City Island, after the war was over sent a petition to Governor Clinton, complaining of his grievances. He declared that he had been driven off the Island, his stock destroyed, his effects plundered, his family taken prisoners, and, as a last indignity, the commander of the guardship, "Scorpion," ordered him to cut his wood in a certain place and no place else, "upon penalty of having his house burned down." Palmer's case was not a peculiar one. These acts of petty oppression were universal during the occupancy by the British of all parts of the country. But in his case there was a special reason for the enemy's retaliation. He had ventured to write to General Howe a letter in

vindication of the Americans. But inasmuch as the sufferer afterwards removed to New York City with his family and had besides abundance of good company in his sufferings, and since his oppressors were ultimately defeated and driven from the country and he, if present, might have witnessed the hauling down of their flag on the Battery, in New York, in 1783, it would appear that he might well have been content to call it square and withdraw his petition. A hundred years made a great change in the value of the plantation held by him and from which he was then driven on City Island. The oyster business was greatly developed there. The building of vessels, mostly pleasure yachts, led to the establishment of a dock-yard, in which a considerable number of men were employed, and where some of the speediest yachts in the country were built.

Manor of Philipseburgh—The manor of Philipseburgh occupied in its southern part the western side of what is now The Bronx, reaching from Spuyten Duyvil to Croton Point and Haverstraw Bay where the manor of Cortlandt had its southern limit, running northward along the eastern shore of the Hudson. Yonkers was an important part of the Philipseburgh manor. Going back to its beginnings it is necessary to recall that Elias Doughty sold to Frederick Philipse, Delaval, and Lewis, 7,708 acres of Colen Donck. By June 12, 1686, the whole tract had come into the possession of Frederick Philipse by purchase from the heirs of the other two proprietors. In the meanwhile, Philipse had been buying land from the Indians and from later proprietors and patentees, until in 1693, he owned an enormous tract of land extending virtually from Spuyten Duyvil Creek and Harlem River on the south to the Croton River on the north, and between the Bronx and Hudson rivers on the east and west. This tract did not include the Mile Square, nor the tracts sold to Hadden or to Betts and Tippett. On June 12, 1693, by royal charter signed by Benjamin Fletcher, "captain-general and governor-in-chief of our province of New York aforesaid," all of Philipse's purchases were formed into the lordship and manor of Philipseburgh, or Philipseborough, with the regular rights of court-baron and court-leet, "together with the advowson and right of patronage of all and every the church or churches erected or to be erected or established or hereafter to be erected or established within the said manor of Philipseborough." The quit-rent was an annual payment of four pounds current money of the province upon the feast day of the Annunciation of the Blessed Virgin Mary, payable "at our fort of New York." Included in this grant was the island Paparinemo, with the right of building a bridge across the Muscoota, or Spuyten Duyvil Creek. Frederick Philipse — the name was also spelt Flypse, Flypsen,

Vlypse, and Vlypsen, its meaning being "the son of Philip"— was a native of Friesland in Holland, who came to New Amsterdam before 1653 when he was about twenty-one years of age. He worked at his trade of carpenter, but gradually engaged in mercantile pursuits until he became the richest man in the province and was known among the English as the "Dutch millionaire." He made two advantageous marriages, his first wife being Margaret Hardenbroeck, widow of Pietrus Rudolphus De Vries, a wealthy merchant of New Amsterdam, whose business the new Mrs. Philipse continued in her own right with extraordinary shrewdness. This was in 1662; she died about 1690. The second Mrs. Philipse was Catherine Van Cortlandt, the sister of Stephanus Van Cortlandt and the widow of John Dervall. Philipse was named in the order for Dongan's council and was councillor for upwards of twenty years. His business ventures were in both the East and the West Indies and with the Five Nations of the Mohawk Valley. He was accused of having direct dealings with the island of Madagascar off the African coast, then the most notorious resort of pirates on the face of the earth. His ships supplied the pirates with rum, gun-powder, flour, and other necessities at exorbitant prices, and received in payment merchandise captured from innocent merchantmen. This illicit trade seems to have been considered more or less honorable, or at least not dishonorable, in those days, as we find Livingston and other wealthy lords of the manor and high officials engaged in it, until it became so scandalous that the authorities determined to put a stop to it. New York had become a resort for vessels which, under the guise of privateering, indulged in piratical exploits and sold their spoils in New York.

The individual chosen to put an end to this profitable custom was Captain William Kidd, who was recommended to the governor by Philipse, Livingston and others; but who, finding his crew willing, hoisted the black flag and began the career that has sent his name down the centuries. He was finally captured, tried, convicted, and hanged; but was reticent to the last and would not expose his backers. A large portion of his spoils could not be accounted for, which has led to the tradition that he buried them along the American shores, an especially favorite location being Gardiner's Island and other places in Long Island Sound. Probably the governor, Lord Bellomont, knew what he was talking about when he said the "Kidd's missing treasure could be readily found if the coffers of Frederick Philipse were searched." The connection of Philipse with this illegal traffic at last became so notorious that a petition, supported by depositions, asking for his removal from the council, was presented to the home govern-

ment; and, anticipating his removal, Philipse resigned his membership in the council in 1698, retired to his manor and bent his energies to its development.

Patent of West Farms—The original patent of West Farms comprised the territory between the Fordham line on the north, the Bronx River on the east, the Sound on the south, and Bungay Creek and Morrisania on the west. On March 12, 1633, Edward Jessup and John Richardson of Westchester bought from nine Indians a tract of land west of the Bronx River, extending south to the East River, and northerly to about the middle of the present lower lake in Bronx Park; the westerly boundary was a small stream called Bungay Creek by the English, or "Sackwrahung" by the Indians; the eastern boundary was the middle of the Bronx River. The tract was subdivided into twelve farms, and was therefore called the "Twelve Farms," or since these lay to the west of Westchester, more commonly, the "West Farms." By confirmatory patent of Governor Nicholls, dated April 25, 1666, the tract was divided into two equal portions between the two original patentees. Jessup's daughter Elizabeth married Thomas Hunt of the "Grove Farm" on Throgg's Neck; they came into possession of the Neck extending into the East River, which thus became known as Hunt's Point. This was by purchase from "Robert Beachem and Elizabeth, formerly the wife of Edward Jessup," of "all those hoeing lands and accommodations that were formerly Edward Jessup's." The deed is dated June 20, 1668.

The land "on the main" at the time of the English occupation stood something like this: On the west, lying between the Hudson and the Bronx rivers, was Colen Donck; next came "Brouncksland," between the Harlem and the Bronx; next to the eastward came the West Farms; east of this tract was Cornell's Neck; adjoining it on the north was Oostdorp, or Westchester; beyond, on the Sound, was Throgg's Neck; and north of Westchester was Pell's purchase of 1654. A portion of the Keskeskeck purchase of 1639 does not seem to have been taken up. The only settlement or town in the whole district was Westchester; and the settlers here had an agreement with Pell, who claimed to the East River, by which they were to pay him a certain annual quit-rent. This they failed to do; and in acknowledgement of his right on June 14, 1664, they surrendered into his hands all right, title, and interest in the lands. This was a rather curious transaction, as at the time of it they were sworn to allegiance to the Dutch, whose jurisdiction they acknowledged. But being Connecticut men they were probably inclined to further the claim of their native colony to the Atlantic Ocean,

which they could do better by admitting Pell's supremacy than by upholding the claim of the Dutch.

On August 16, 1680, the town of Westchester gave to Richardson and Jessup, the owners of West Farms, the privilege of locating a sawmill and a grist-mill upon the Bronx River. On April 2, 1711, this privilege, together with one sawmill and three grist-mills, was conveyed to Tryntje Byvanck, widow of Evert Byvanck, to William Provost, from whom it passed to the original Etienne, or Stephen De Lancey, who by will dated March 4, 1735, devised "unto my son, Peter, and to his heirs, all my mills, mill-houses, mill-boat, farm and land, and all and every the appurtenances thereunto belonging, situate and being in the county of Westchester, upon Bronck's River, lately known as the mills of William Richardson." In consequence of this inheritance the heir became known as "Peter of the Mills," and the locality as De Lancey's Mills, as well as West Farms. Later the most thickly populated portion of The Bronx mainland was the section lying contiguous to the Sound: Westchester, West Farms, Throgg's Neck, and Eastchester. Here the preponderating influence was that of the De Lancey family. In the spring of 1777, during the war, the British forces occupied the abandoned fortifications of the Americans on the mainland, restored and strengthened them, and built several new ones. Their line of outposts extended from Philipse's Manor or Yonkers through Mile Square, Williamsbridge, and Eastchester, with an interior line of posts at Kingsbridge, Fordham Heights, Morrisania, West Farms, and Westchester, while the various necks and points of land extending into the East River were not neglected. There was thus left between the two opposing armies a wide space of the county; which was subject to the forays and marauds of both sides. This constituted the famous Neutral Ground.

Grace Church, West Farms, was incorporated December 13, 1844. The credit of first attempting to establish an Episcopal Church in the village was due to Miss Margaret Hunt, daughter of Thomas Hunt, fourth in descent from Edward Jessup, one of the original patentees of West Farms. The corner-stone of the church was laid November 10, 1846, and the edifice was consecrated by Bishop De Lancey of Western New York, June 28, 1847. During the colonial period some of the churches in the northern part of the county were comprised within the presbyteries of Connecticut or of Dutchess (Putnam) County; but even thirty years after the Revolution little or nothing was done in the lower part of the county, and it was considered a good field for missionary work by the New York Presbytery. In 1814 the Reverend Isaac Lewis divided his time between New Rochelle and

West Farms engaged in such work; and in the following year, 1815, a church edifice was erected at West Farms. Four members organized the church on December 4, 1816; and the congregation was fully organized by the election of officers on November 5, 1818. The ancient edifice, the oldest in the city belonging to the Presbyterians, and its churchyard, stand on East 180th Street, a short distance west of the Boston Road and the site of De Lancey's Mills. In 1903 Charles Bathgate Beck left a legacy to the church, and a fine stone edifice with an imposing tower was erected on the land directly opposite the old church building, which was for a time given over to a colored congregation. The new church is known as the Beck Memorial Presbyterian Church. Previous to 1858 the Pilgrim Baptist Church of New York opened a mission in what was called West Farms Hall, where services were held on Sundays by the Reverend Theodore Gessler and by a business man by the name of Halset Knapp. Success crowned their efforts and a number of converts were made who were baptized in the Bronx River. In January, 1858, the Baptists of West Farms, to the number of twenty-one, formed themselves into a distinct church and adopted the name of the Pilgrim Baptist Church of West Farms. In November of the same year a lot was purchased on the Boston Road at Bryant Street, and the erection of a small church edifice was begun shortly afterwards; a later edifice occupied the same site, though long unused, having been vacated on account of the noise of passing trolley cars and elevator trains. Soon after the close of the Civil War, in 1866, the Bathgate farm was acquired by the Jerome Park Villa Site Improvement Company, but the American Jockey Club soon became the lessee and laid out a track for racing purposes. The property lay in the town of West Farms, in the ancient manor of Fordham; and the site is now occupied by the Jerome Park distributing reservoir.

Houses of the Manor-Lords and Tenants—The houses of the manor-lords and the well-to-do Dutch and English men and women were substantially built of stone, or of black, yellow and red bricks especially imported from Holland or England. They usually consisted of two stories and an attic, the latter for the use of the servants. The houses were large, comfortable, and roomy; the last often a necessity in the case of the Dutch, as indeed of the English, both of whom in colonial days had large numbers of children. Not only did the necessities of life abound, but many of the luxuries. The furniture was of mahogany, the rooms wainscoted, the fireplaces of tiles bearing extracts from the Scriptures or pictures illustrating biblical scenes, while silver and pewter utensils and fine Delft or other china were in constant use. In later times fine pictures by Allston, Sully, Peale, and other artists

hung upon the walls, and some of the best European artists were represented there. The manor-house of the Philipses at Yonkers remains as an example of many of these homes of the wealthy gentry. The carved oak and ornamental ceilings, doors, and walls, done by workmen imported for the purpose, show the taste and comfortable circumstances of the owners. It must not be thought that these people belonged to the idle class; on the contrary they were practical farmers, merchants, or professional men; for idleness was one of the deadly sins, and several European visitors, as well as the officers of the French army under Rochambeau, have left their testimony to the activity of the better-to-do of the American colonies. The pasturage was excellent and cattle, sheep and swine had free range of the woods. The Labadist missionaries who visited New York in 1679 expressed surprise at the number, size, and lusciousness of the peaches, and noted the fact that, while many of them lay upon the ground, the hogs paid little attention to them, as the hogs were apparently already gorged. The cattle not only furnished milk and meat, but their hides supplied the footwear of the family, being made into shoes by the itinerant shoemaker on his yearly or half-yearly visits. From the sheep was obtained wool, and flax was early planted and cultivated; the hand loom stood in every household and converted them into woolen cloth and into linen thread and sheeting. The thread was of extraordinary strength and the linen of a satiny texture. His homespun cloth not only clothed the farmer and his family, but he was able to send his surplus to New York, whence it was sent to other parts of the coast and to Europe. Tobacco was also added to the planting field, as everybody smoked; and the Dutch were, beyond all others, consumers of the fragrant weed. Added to these the woods abounded in wild birds and game, and deer were plentiful. The waters of the Sound, the Harlem, and the Hudson, and of the innumerable brooks and streams supplied the settlers with fish; so that of food there was an abundance, even upon the tables of the poorest, while upon the tables of the well-to-do there was such a variety and profusion as to arouse comment of such Europeans as visited the colony.

The attire of the people was in keeping with their general circumstances. The women and girls dressed plainly in serviceable and durable homespun. For Sundays and for "frolics" a ribbon or other gewgaw could be purchased from the Yankee peddler who began to make his stated rounds with his pack. The ordinary dress of the yeoman was homespun in summer. In winter his dress consisted of leather breeches and apron, as cloth was too expensive—about a guinea a yard. The stockings were made of wool raised on his own farm and knitted by his women folks. The Dutch adhered to their distinctive dress of

voluminous petticoats and breeches, so humorously described by Irving; but as time passed intermarriages began to be frequent among the different races, with the result that national characteristics became modified and amalgamated, and the population became more and more nearly homogeneous. The well-to-do classes dressed with an expenditure parallel to that which they made on food and habitation. They tried to follow the fashions of Europe, but necessarily they were a year or two behind. It was to be expected in an English colony that the social distinctions of England would be observed to a greater or less extent. There were then three classes in the social scale; the gentry, the tradesmen, and the yeomanry, of whom the last were, of course, the most numerous. The line between the gentry, those of landed estates or descended from those who were regarded as "gentlemen" in Europe, and the other classes was marked. While perhaps the upper classes were not supercilious nor the lower obsequious, there was condescension on the one hand and deference on the other. The influx of New Englanders, whose democratic ideas rendered them obnoxious to the phlegmatic Dutch as well as to the English New Yorker, tended to break this barrier, and the Revolution and the Constitution together swept it away at the end of the eighteenth century. The principal cause of the difference in caste lay in the land tenure. Many of the farmers were tenants of the landed gentry, occupying their lands on long and liberal leases, which did not at first begin to pay the landlords for their expense in obtaining settlers, but which, as time passed, became valuable. The New Englanders frequently preferred the leasehold property to holding property in fee. In the former case they could if seized by that desire for improvement of which Irving speaks quit at the expiration of the lease or even before by disposing of their betterments to a newcomer and emigrating to "green fields and pastures new." If they were owners in fee they were to a certain extent bound to the land which they owned. There thus existed between landlord and tenant that relation which has prevailed in England since Saxon days, and which in the modern age has set off a class of people known distinctively as the landed gentry.

Westchester County was not as distinctively Dutch as Rockland and other up-river counties, nor was the Dutch tongue spoken for so long a time. The Dutch settler usually built his house of stone with a large door, the lower half and the upper half being swung separately, so that the upper half could be opened for light and ventilation, while the lower half remained shut, to prevent the egress of the small children and the ingress of poultry, pigs, or other domestic animals. The windows were made of small panes of glass and were protected by strong shutters hung on heavy wrought-iron hinges, and kept open by a large catch,

shaped like the letter "S." A porch, or stoep, extended, if not across the front of the house, at least in front of the doorway. In the kitchen was a huge fireplace which might consume a cord of wood a day, and within whose generous dimensions, in the winter time, the whole family, including the cat and the dog, could find accommodation. The beds were great four-posters, the bottom of sacking, through which stout ropes were drawn and fastened to pegs, on the frame, while upon this were piled the mattresses or feather beds. In poorer houses, clean straw or hay thrown upon the floor, or in shelves or bunks built for the purpose, answered all the purposes of beds.

Enforced Labor—It has been noted that slavery was introduced on the mainland of America by the Dutch, in the sense at least that a vessel of that nationality sold to the planters at Jamestown, Virginia, a number of negro slaves in 1619. One of the earliest promises held out to prospective settlers in New Amsterdam by the West India Company was that a sufficient number of negro slaves would be furnished to the settlers. The institution of slavery existed all through Dutch and English days, and even after New York became a state. Slaves, however, were not held in large number as in the southern colonies nor were they usually provided with separate quarters. They ordinarily slept in the attics or upper stories of the houses of their masters and ate their meals in the kitchen after their master and his family had finished. They were in a sense regarded as members of the family group and the farmer who owned one or two worked in the fields alongside of them, much as the small farmer works with his hired men. On the whole their owners treated them with kindness and did not have unlimited power over them in the way of punishment. They were flogged of course on occasion, but that was a form of punishment meted out to others also. The Dutch in particular had the repute of treating their black dependents with humanity. During the seventeenth century the value of a negro was about one hundred dollars in our money, and of a negress about two hundred dollars. The traffic began to decline in 1718; and in 1755 there were but seventy-three African slaves in the whole county of Westchester. When it was pretty certain that slavery was to be abolished in the State many of those who owned slaves sent them into the southern States for sale, so that there would be no loss of property or money. The plan of freeing the slaves was one of gradual manumission, and the last slave held in New York State was one belonging to the Morris family—this about 1827. Indians were also reduced to a condition of slavery in the early days of the colony, but the Indian has never shown himself greatly addicted to hard manual labor—that he left to his squaw.

A different kind of enforced labor was also employed in the Colony, that of the indentured, or bond servant. This was a man or woman who, desirous of coming to the New World, received a passage from the ship-master, with the agreement that upon arrival his or her services were to be sold for a certain period, usually five years, to the highest bidder. The ship-master pocketed the sum paid and was thus reimbursed for his trouble and expense. Sometimes persons were trepanned in England and disposed of in this way by persons whose interests would be favorably affected by the disappearance of the seized person. It may be noted that the uncle of David Balfour, in Stevenson's story, "Kidnapped," attempted to get rid of his nephew in this way. The person whose services were disposed of became legally bound to the buyer, who thus became in a sense the owner, and in any case the master, of the bond servant, until the expiration of the term of service; when the servant became capable of disposing of his or her own time. The same laws and penalties practically applied to a runaway bond-servant as to a runaway slave. The class of indentured servants was not composed of the vicious and the wicked. Most of them were merely poor and thought they could do better in a new land than in the thickly settled countries of Europe. Occasionally it was pique or some similar feeling that drove them to the step, sometimes disappointed love, or dissipation, or disappointment. But there was another class of servants made up of men and women condemned by law and sold into the plantation for life or for a certain period of time accordingly as it was determined by the judges who sentenced them. Some of these were actually criminals and malefactors; others of them were men of the loftiest character, patriots who fought against oppression, men who deliberately defied bad laws, others penalized by unjust judges or degraded men in authority, according to the usage in the bad old times that have been often too much praised. The services of these were sold to the highest bidder as in the case of the indentured servant. When we recall the number of offenses that were capital in England and in other lands where it was sought to impose English law, we may well believe that those who escaped the hangman were not usually guilty of what we would consider in these days very heinous crimes. Of these transported men and women comparatively few reached New York; there was a greater demand for them in the southern colonies and in the West Indies. In respect to crimes and misdemeanors the English laws prevailed, with such additions and modifications as the conditions of the new country would require. There was the same long, ghastly list of capital crimes; and the stocks, the pillory, and the whipping-post stood always ready for the minor offenders. In the court records of the borough-town of Westchester is the case of one offender convicted of hog-stealing, who

was sentenced to pay eleven pounds for the stolen animals, or to receive forty lashes upon the back. There is another record of one member of a jury "hanging" the jury and being fined by the court. The case of Judge Morris shows that there were honorable men on the bench, and this too at a time when the English judiciary had not lost its subserviency to the crown, nor completely departed from the brutal truculence of which Jeffries was an example.

Education on the Manors—Much cannot be said for the education that was imparted in the Colonial period. There were schools in New Amsterdam and in Beverwyck, or Albany; but in the country districts the mother was the teacher and the Bible and catechism the only textbooks; so that the Dutchmen, though in some cases not completely illiterate, were decidedly uneducated. The children of the better classes, had naturally more advantages than those of the poorer classes and they were sometimes sent from New Netherland to the University of Leyden, especially in the case of young men who aspired to become dominies. The daughters were trained to be housewives and mothers; to cook and to clean up, to sew and knit and spin and weave, and to take care of the poultry and the cattle and of the household generally.

Later in the days of English dominance some progress had been made and things were a little better. But it was a long time before anything better was developed than the rural school. In the more eastern portions of the county, adjacent to Connecticut, and settled by the people of that colony, the schoolhouse was established at an earlier date, the necessity for schools having been recognized by the General Court, or Legislature, of Massachusetts, as early as 1645-47, and carried by Winthrop, Davenport, and others into the Colony of Connecticut from the older colony. The Connecticut settlers of the "Ten Farms" at Eastchester set aside at an early date a piece of land for school purposes and erected a schoolhouse in 1683. The same site was occupied for school purposes for a period of about two hundred years. The English settlers of Westchester also established a school at an early date. The school and schoolmaster there were maintained by the Propagation Society, the latter being assigned from London and paid an allowance by the society. The inhabitants also contributed towards the support of both, and the schoolmaster assisted the rector by instructing his pupils in the Catechism. The first recorded schoolmaster in Westchester was Edward Fitzgerald, in 1709. On October 30, 1709, the Reverend John Bartow writes: "We want very much a fixed school at Westchester; if Mr. Daniel Clark, my neighbor, now in England, should wait upon you, desirous of that employment, I recommend him as a person worthy of it; being of good report, a constant communicant, and, being a clergy-

man's son, has had a pious and learned education." The recommendation was apparently effective, as Mr. Daniel Clark was schoolmaster from 1710 to 1713. In this latter year, according to the reports of the society: "Mr. Charles Glover is appointed schoolmaster at Westchester with a salary of £18 per annum, as he is recommended under the character of a person, sober and diligent, well affected to the Church of England, and competently skilled in reading, writing, arithmetic, psalmody, and the Latin tongue, provided he comply with the Society's rules in sending certificates of the number of his scholars." He held the position until 1719. The society's abstracts for that year say: "To Mr. William Forrester, schoolmaster at Westchester, who has been recommended as a person very well qualified to instruct the youth in the principles of religion and virtue, ten pounds per annum is allowed; and a gratuity of £10 has been given him, in consideration of his past services and his present circumstances." In the abstract of the same year, Mr. Forrester reports: "I have at present thirty-five scholars, whom I catechise every Saturday, and also every Sunday that Mr. Bartow goes to another part of the parish." Also from an extract of 1720: "from Mr. Forrester, schoolmaster at Westchester in the Province of New York, that he takes all the care he can of the children which are sent to him, and has upwards of thirty scholars, which he instructs in the Church Catechism." In 1722, Mr. Bartow reports "that they are repairing the church there (at Westchester) with the voluntary contributions of the people, procured chiefly by the zeal and care of Mr. Forrester, the schoolmaster there." In 1724, in answer to questions from the society, Mr. Bartow gives an exact account of his cure. He writes:

> Question—Have you in your parish any public school for the instruction of youth; if you have, is it endowed, and who is the master?
>
> Answer—We have a public school at Westchester, of which Mr. Forrester is the society's school-master, and we have private schools in other places; no endowment; some families of the town of Pelham that are adjacent come to Eastchester church.

In November, 1729, Mr. Standard answers the same questions as follows:

> I say there are three schools and three schoolmasters. The first school is at Westchester, William Forrester, master, who has a salary from the Venerable Society, whom we have the honor to serve. The second is at Eastchester, one Delpech, master, who is very well adapted and fitted for that business and is well spoken of as being diligent in it; the third is at New Rochelle, where both French and English are taught. The two last have no other encouragement than what the parents of the children taught, do give.

Forrester remained as schoolmaster until 1743. That he became a person of considerable consequence is shown by the fact that in 1733

he was put up by the De Lancey part as the opponent of Judge Lewis Morris in the election of that year for representative in the Assembly. In 1744, Basil Bartow was appointed schoolmaster at the request of the church authorities. The king's commissary reported as follows: "He is the son of the Rev. John Bartow, late the Society's worthy missionary there. He is a person of good temper, sober, and pious, and well affected to the present Government; conformable to the doctrine and discipline of the Church, and exceedingly well qualified for the instruction of children." Bartow remained as schoolmaster for nearly twenty years, or until 1762, when we learn from the report of Rector Milner: "that the school is still vacant, and deprived of a teacher, but I petition the Society to continue their bounty to some worthy person who shall be chosen schoolmaster; as the school is a nursery for the Church and of great service in these parts." In 1763, he writes again: "I express my own and my people's sense of the favor done us in giving us leave to choose a schoolmaster for this place, tho' we have not yet been able to find a person properly qualified for the office." In 1764, he writes: "I have in pursuance of the powers given me by the Society, appointed Mr. Nathaniel Seabury, a son of the late worthy missionary at Hempstead, Long Island, to be schoolmaster at Westchester."

Nathaniel Seabury was the brother of the Reverend Samuel Seabury, later rector of the parish. He remained as schoolmaster till 1768, when he was succeeded by George Youngs, whose services lasted until 1772. The position was apparently vacant till 1774, when Mr. Gott became the holder of the office and continued in it until the Revolution. After that the school ceased to be an appanage of the church and became an object of support from the town. According to the town records the first public school in Westchester was established in 1798. Later the township was divided into three school districts: Westchester Village, Bear Swamp, and Throgg's Neck. The present fine building in Westchester was erected by the city in 1897. The schoolmasters engaged by the Venerable Propagation Society at Westchester, with the salaries and the times of their appointment were as follows:

Time of Appointment	Schoolmasters	Salary
1709	Edward Fitzgerald	18 pounds per annum
1710	Daniel Clark	18 pounds per annum
1713	Charles Glover	18 pounds per annum
1719	William Forrester	10 pounds per annum
1743	Basil Bartow	10 pounds per annum
1764	Nathaniel Seabury	10 pounds per annum
1768	George Youngs	10 pounds per annum
1774	Mr. Gott	10 pounds per annum

The occupation of the various sections of the territory of what is now The Bronx in the first half of the eighteenth century by immigrants from England and other countries who at that time had grown accustomed to a certain prosperity, rendered the matter of education for their children a rather important one, and it was met by the employment of a schoolmaster by families living within a convenient distance from the schoolhouse, or of the residence of one of the inhabitants used for the purpose, each family paying in proportion to the number of the children sent. The schoolmaster was frequently the minister, who added to his small stipend by giving instruction in the three "R's" and in the rudiments of the humanities. The Rev. John Peter Tetard, commonly known as "Dominie Tetard," was born in Switzerland and graduated from the University of Lausanne. He preached to French congregations at Charleston, South Carolina, and in the city of New York, and after his removal to Kingsbridge, at Fordham Church. In 1772, he opened a French boarding-school at Kingsbridge, on the height overlooking the present railroad station, which is called after him, Tetard's Hill. Here he taught not only the French language, but "the most useful sciences, such as geography, the doctrine of the spheres, ancient and modern history, etc." In "Rivington's Gazette," of February 23, 1775, there appeared the following advertisement:

> To the Public, Samuel Seabury, M. A., Rector of the Parish of Westchester, hath opened a School in that Town, and offers his Services to prepare young Gentlemen for the College, the Compting-House, or any genteel Business for which Parents or Guardians may design them. Board (Washing included) may be had in unexceptionable Families, at about twenty Pounds per Ann. and the Tuition will be at six Pounds, New York Currency, and eight Shillings for Firewood.

It would appear that the home churches that sent ministers to the colony intended that they should not only preach the gospel but also educate the youth of both sexes. Sometimes a Yankee pedagogue—a graduate of Yale perhaps—would occupy the position, which then, more than now, was a position of honor; as the "schoolmaster" was, in addition to his position in the school, clerk, chorister, and visitor to the sick, or almoner, and often a member of the corporation. After obtaining all the education it was possible for the local schoolmaster to impart, and having reached the age of twelve or thirteen, the pupil was ready for Yale College, or Nassau Hall at Princeton, the latter being generally preferred. The sons of the wealthiest merchants were sometimes educated in the English colleges; and when King's College, later Columbia University, was founded, it received its share of the colonial youth. At the age of eighteen or twenty, the young man took his degree, and was then an educated gentleman; but the education im-

parted at the best of the colleges did not surpass that of our best high schools at the present day. Yet an education that could produce such graduates as Jefferson, Morris, Izard, Adams, and many others of like fame and character, must have had some elements of solidity. It was not until after the establishment of the new government that the matter of education became one of general importance and one of which the State took cognizance and control. No newspapers were published in Westchester County until after the Revolution, but it is stated that the colonial newsletters and journals were eagerly read and discussed by the inhabitants, many of whom were subscribers.

Occupations in The Bronx—In the main the occupation of the inhabitants of the territory of what is now the borough and county was farming. Several travellers through Westchester County in later colonial days have left their impressions of what they observed, and they state that even in the large villages each resident had his farm of several acres, so that neighbors were not very close ones. Nor was it necessary that they should be; for the Indian had been brought into subjection and had, in 1750, retired to the wilder regions of the Highlands, where, at Lake Osceola, he occupied his last village before disappearing from the county. Single families or members of the aboriginal owners of the soil might be found occasionally scattered through the county, supporting themselves by hunting and fishing, or by making brooms and baskets. Even the mechanics, the carpenters, the masons, the painters, the blacksmiths, were farmers in a small way in addition to their trades. The tavern-keeper and the store-keeper also had their farms adjoining their tavern or store. There was no manufacturing worthy of the name: some hats were made of the skin of the beaver, which could be found in nearly all the streams. Manufacturing did not begin until the years immediately preceding the Revolution, when the Non-Importation Agreement forced the colonists to make goods which up to that time they had been accustomed to purchase in the British market. Apart from that the English laws forbade manufacturing in the colonies, having as the purpose of this oppressive restriction the safeguarding of a system of monopoly in the hands of the British merchant and manufacturer, and this was further secured to the British trader by the obnoxious Navigation Laws. During the war the American was thrown on his own resources for many articles which he could not smuggle in from the Dutch ports in the West Indies, and his necessity was in this case the mother of invention and the making of many articles greatly needed by him. Grist-mills and sawmills were located wherever there was sufficient water power, as on Tippett's Brook, which was dammed for the purpose, or on Eastchester Creek, where the rise and

fall of the tide gave power to turn the undershot wheel of Reid's mill. It is probable that Jonas Bronk built a mill about three miles from the mouth of the river which bears his name.

On August 16, 1680, the town of Westchester, as has been noted, gave to Richardson and Jessup, the owners of the West Farms, the privilege of locating a sawmill and a grist-mill upon the Bronx River. In 1686, Governor Nicholls granted "certain sawmills to Thomas Delaval, John Verveelen, and Daniel Turner, &c., lying over against Vercher's or Hogg Island, in the Sound, where a passage hath been made to ford over from this island to the maine." These mills must have been on the Bronx Kills and operated by the tide. A mill was also erected on Cromwell's Creek, in 1760, by General Lewis Morris, the Signer, on the western limits of his land. All these mills were sources of considerable income to their owners, as timber was plentiful, and the grain crops of the farmers had to be ground.

Barter and Currency—The general population has been described as poor. Of money there was little; what business was transacted was by means of barter, until later days. During the Dutch days, sewant, or wampum, adopted from the Indians, was the usual currency. This was made from the shells of the periwinkle, which abounded in great quantities on the shores of Long Island. This made the white sewant. A more valuable sewant, called black, was made from the quahaug, or hard clam. In either case the shells were broken or ground away until they became small beads; four of them made a stuyver, or two, a cent. When strung, a fathom of them was worth four guilders, or $1.66. The wampum was usually measured in spans; and when the Indians sold their pelts they selected for their traders those who could stretch farthest from little finger to thumb. This currency was capable of being easily counterfeited, and strings of it were manufactured in Holland of porcelain beads, which, however, did not deceive the Indians. The wampum currency soon depreciated; and though the authorities enacted laws fixing its value from time to time, it soon became almost worthless—the fate of all flat money. Beaver skins had an intrinsic value, and they became the basis of all the larger transactions, being rated in 1658 as high as sixteen guilders. With the advent of the English a change came in the currency and more silver was introduced though not necessarily of British mintage. Until long after the Revolution all sorts of gold and silver coins were in circulation: English, Spanish, French, Dutch, Portuguese; joes, half-joes, pieces of eight, pistoles, guilders, shillings, guineas, pistareens, milled dollars, and many others. During the colonial period, in all the colonies, various makeshifts were resorted to in order to provide a currency; in Newfoundland dried cod-

fish was used for the purpose. All the colonies issued paper currency and New York was no exception. We often, in colonial newspapers and documents, come across the expression, "New York currency," or "current funds of New York." This paper, issued by the authority of the provincial assemblies, had no intrinsic value, and was always depreciated. Its value fluctuated so that it is impossible to give its relative worth in good money. The Rev. John Bartow, writing on July 13, 1724, in answer to the question of the Bishop of London in regard to his salary says: "The value of my living is £50, sterling, of New York money; which is about £32, 10s. sterling, paid not without much difficulty and loss." There were no banks, and people kept their money in their houses. In the houses of the rich, large sums, sometimes running into thousands of pounds sterling, were kept in the great, heavy oak chests whose great strips of iron and heavy locks were sufficient protection against the robber of that day, and which, for further security, were kept in the bedroom of the proprietor. A mattress, a stocking, or a cubby-hole was equally safe for the small possessions of the poor.

When the Revolutionary War came Congress was hard pushed to provide funds and so quantities of continental currency were issued. The more of it that was issued the smaller did its value become, as there was nothing back of it to give it value. After the French alliance of 1780 hard money became less scarce; though in 1782 the continental currency was so depreciated that it took five hundred dollars of it to pay one dollar's worth of merchandise or labor. Acts of the legislatures, and even of Congress itself, could not make the colonial and continental currency pass at its face value, even when the penalties were attached for failure to accept it. The same conditions prevailed after the Peace of 1783; and the experiences of the period from 1783 to 1789, which Fiske calls the "Critical Period of American History," resulted in the safeguarding of the money question in the Constitution by giving the Federal Government absolute power over the issue of coin and currency. During the Revolution the British paid in good money for what they bought, so that it is not to be wondered at that the farmers of a section so close to the British base of supplies at New York as was the territory comprised within the borough, were more tempted to be faithless to the American cause or to give their conduct a neutral tinge than to be ardent patriots. After all, a man's politics are largely ruled by the requirements of his pocket, and when we take into account the material inducements to enlist we can understand in some degree why the Tory regiments of Rogers and De Lancey were recruited largely from the sections adjacent to New York.

Recreation and Festivals—The more intimately human side of colonial

life in the period and on the territory of the manors—the frolics, the amusements, the weddings, and the funerals—had also their distinctive aspects. The Dutch were great for frolics, as they were termed, and the English readily took up the customs of their neighbors. The negro is an inborn musician and he always served as the fiddler upon these occasions, which generally took place in the winter time, when the snow upon the ground made travel quick and pleasant. Gathering at the home of some farmer, or at a convenient tavern, the frolickers indulged in dancing, card playing, and drinking until daylight made its appearance. Wrestling was a favorite amusement among the English and so were horse-racing and hunting, the latter in the winter time when their Dutch neighbors were skating on the frozen ponds or coasting down the snow-covered hills. The Maypole was erected on May-day, and everybody celebrated it as a holiday in the manner of Merrie England. The fifth of November was also celebrated with bonfires and the burning of effigies, in memory of Guy Fawkes and the failure of the Gunpowder Plot; New Year's Day was the greatest holiday of all with the Dutch, when the burgher and the boer put aside his work, decked himself in his best clothes, and went around to the houses of his friends to wish them happiness during the coming year to the accompaniment of numerous pipes and glasses of schnapps. The good old Dutch custom prevailed with New Yorkers until the drunkenness and debauchery which the abuse of the custom produced, led to its stoppage a few years back. Pfingster, or Whitsuntide, was also a period of jollification with the Dutch, who, at this time, let their slaves have free play. Practical jokes were always then in order and their success was the occasion of ready and boisterous laughter from the bystanders. In all, their amusements were the rude and simple pleasures of a primitive people.

Among the well-to-do the same festivals were observed with more regard to dignity. Tea parties and dinners were favorite means of entertainment. At the latter affairs wine of a quality not always to be found in Europe was served to the guests; and it was customary for each of the guests in turn to toast some admired friend. The ladies toasted a gentleman, and the gentlemen toasted some lady. In this way the health of some gracious belle was drunk so often and her popularity became so pronounced among her admirers, that she would become the "toast" of the season. An unbounded hospitality prevailed, and anyone who ranked as a "gentleman" had little hesitancy in calling upon an acquaintance, or even upon a stranger, when travelling, for a meal or lodging. Intermarriages occurred between the families of the "gentry," so that in time they were nearly all inter-related or connected. Many of the American heiresses, both of Dutch and English

extraction, became the wives of English officers stationed in New York. Frequently the foreigner, delighted with the manner of American life, took up his permanent home on this side of the water, and became a citizen of the colony and later of the State. Many of them, among whom General Montgomery, Admiral John Barry, and General Charles Lee, were notable examples, fought with the colonists against England to repel the oppressive measures that it was sought to transport from Europe.

In the new world women were very much in the minority and were as a consequence in great demand. A girl had to be very unattractive or shiftless indeed who reached the age of twenty without being married. It is worth noting with what speed widows remarried; there seems to have been no allotted period of mourning for them—a few weeks or months sufficed; and many of them changed their names three or four times as their helpmates departed to the other world. Sarah Willett, daughter of Thomas Cornell, must have been an attractive widow; for she was so pestered and annoyed by suitors, both Dutch and English, that she was obliged to appeal to the court for protection from their ardent advances. She finally married Thomas Bridges and thus disposed of her other admirers. Weddings were occasions of great jollification with both Dutch and English, and the festivities were generally kept up for several days; while rough jokes and rude jests were indulged in to an extent that would shock our modern ideas of propriety. Woe betide the unfortunate bridegroom who was niggardly in inviting his friends to his wedding or who failed to provide generously for them in food and drink. When it came to house raising, corn-husking, quilting and similar affairs where numbers were required, a whole neighborhood would join in and help, and the affair would become a frolic, the host being careful to provide ample quantities of cider, beer, and rum.

CHAPTER VI

REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD

During the Revolutionary War the territory of The Bronx shared with Manhattan the vicissitudes of the time and lay under the shadow of the British occupation in Manhattan. A community such as that which occupied Westchester, made up for the most part of well-situated, intelligent and well-to-do farmers, discreetly attending to their own affairs, without the disturbing influence of village or county coterie, has generally been distinguished for a tendency to conservatism in its relations; and such a community, it has been noted, has always been more inclined to maintain those various long-continued, settled traditions with a certain tenacity, preferring very often to continue an existing inconvenience or an intangible wrong, to which it had become accustomed, than to accept in its stead the possibility of an advantage in an untried and uncertain change. The tenure under which many of these Westchester farmers held their lands, not permitting them the rights of freeholders at the polls, had, from the beginning removed that portion of the inhabitants of the county from the arena of politics, without having created any discontent; and, to a great extent, it had served also to increase the spirit of conservatism in political affairs which would have controlled those that were tenants under any circumstances. There is not any material evidence of the existence on the eve of the Revolution in Westchester of any excitement among the great body of these farmers on any subject, and consequently there is very little evidence that the excitement of the earlier opposition to the British Government, which had so seriously disturbed the peace of New York, as well as of other towns and cities on the seaboard, had found any sort of repercussion in Westchester beyond the limited circles of those who held public offices within the county. Indeed there had been no good reason for these farmers, comfortably situated in their inland homesteads to take any particular interest in those struggles which from an early period the Boston, the Salem, the New York, or any other ship-masters and merchants had been waging, for the protection of that long-continued and profitable "illicit trade," from which no benefit had ever accrued to any one, and it mattered very little to the thrifty housewives in Westchester from whose warehouses—whether from those of John Hancock and the Revolutionary merchants of Boston and New York, or from those of the agents of the East India

Company in those ports—their teacups should be supplied, since the tea which had been smuggled into the colonies by the former was quite as expensive as that which had been imported according to law by the latter. Now and then, it is true, those of these farmers who were freeholders had been engaged among themselves in a political contest between the friends of the De Lanceys and those of the Morrises, or between the supporters of the Van Cortlandts and those of the Philipses, all of them Westchester landlords, for seats in the general assembly of the colony or for some local object; but, beyond such merely local contests, they had never gone—the Sons of Liberty were not represented and had no correspondence within the county.

Apathy Towards the Revolution—The population of what is now the Borough of The Bronx was in the Revolutionary era a farming one, being either "gentleman" farmers, occupiers of leaseholds as tenants of wealthy landlords, or owners of small farms of their own. The franchise was limited to those who possessed unencumbered property to the value of forty pounds, a considerable sum in those days, and these were the freeholders of the county. It was not until the adoption of the second Constitution of the State in 1821 that the suffrage was made universal. Farmers, as a class, are conservative; and when to this conservatism is added the fact that many of them in colonial days did not have the right to vote, we may surmise that so long as they found a ready market for their produce they did not bother their heads very much about political matters, but left such affairs to those who had a particular interest in such matters. The differences between the Morris and De Lancey families might, and did, arouse a feeling of partisanship; but in general they were satisfied to return to the Provincial Assembly some prominent man of the neighborhood for whom they felt it an honor to vote, or of whom they might be tenants. The feeling of political neutrality or apathy was particularly marked in the province of New York, which not only furnished its quota to the Continental Army, but also furnished more Tories, both active and passive, than any other province or State. The general mass of the population, though steady, intelligent, industrious, and not illiterate, did not concern themselves greatly with the political affairs of the decade between 1764 and 1774, in which New England took so prominent a part. They looked upon their eastern neighbors as stirrers-up of strife, whose ability and progressiveness they were ready enough to acknowledge, but for whom they expressed a certain contempt and often dislike. Thus the will of Lewis Morris, Junior, of Morrisania, November 19, 1760, says: "It is my will and desire that my son Gouverneur Morris may have the best education that is to be had in England or America.

But my express will and directions are, that he be never sent for that purpose to the Colony of Connecticut, lest he should imbibe in his youth that low craft and cunning, so incident to the people of that Country, which is so interwoven with their constitution that all their art cannot disguise it from the world though many of them, under the sanctified garb of religion, have endeavored to impose themselves upon the world as honest men." The fact that a man was a Yankee was sufficient to excuse his vagaries of dress, action, or speech. We do not find therefore that any Committee of Correspondence or society of the Sons of Liberty existed within the county. This feeling of apathy was more pronounced in the southern part of the county, with the territory of what is now The Bronx, than in the more northerly sections, such as White Plains, Bedford, Rye, and Mamaroneck, whose original settlers were nearly all from Connecticut.

More populous than other parts of what is now the borough was the section lying contiguous to the Sound: Westchester, West Farms, Throgg's Neck, and Eastchester. Here the preponderating influence was that of the De Lancey family; and as they were almost to a man loyalists this portion of the borough became a hotbed of Toryism. Another element which added to the lack of loyalty to the patriot cause was the influence of the clergy of the Church of England; and from the pulpits of St. Peter's at Westchester, St. Paul's at Eastchester, and St. John's at Yonkers, the doctrine of passive obedience was preached by the rectors, among them Seabury and Babcock, with no less fervor than in the days of Laud and the Star Chamber. On August 20, 1774, a meeting was called at the borough town of Westchester for the purpose of electing delegates to a county convention to be held at White Plains on the twenty-second of the same month, for the purpose of selecting a representative to the General Congress to meet in Philadelphia on September 1st. Henry B. Dawson says that this meeting was controlled by a single master-spirit, Colonel Lewis Morris, who, instead of convening the members for an honest expression of opinion from the freeholders and inhabitants, many of whom were his own tenants, or for the honest promotion of the best interests of the colony, used it "as a preparation for the return of the Morris family to place, authority, and influence in the political affairs of the colony, from which, through the controlling influence of the De Lanceys, it had been, for many years, entirely excluded." The meeting adopted a set of resolutions which, after proclaiming allegiance to the British king, proceeded to criticize the unconstitutional acts of his government, in taxing the colonies without their consent, to sympathize with the distressed people of Boston on account of the closure of their port,

to call upon the colonies to stand together for unanimous action, and to advise the action of a general congress to take steps for a redress of their grievances. The delegates chosen for the convention at White Plains were James Ferris, Colonel Lewis Morris, and Thomas Hunt.

The convention met at White Plains under the chalrmanship of Colonel Frederick Philipse, a member of the Provincial Assembly, and selected as representatives of the county of Westchester, Isaac Low, Philip Livingston, James Duane, John Alsop, and John Jay, all of whom had already been chosen by the city and the county of New York, to represent it in the Continental Congress. So that officially at least Westchester County was marching side by side with the other sections of the country in their condemnation of the unconstitutional acts of the British Parliament and in a desire for a redress of their grievances. But the majority of the inhabitants were either indifferent or actively hostile to the patriotic actions of the leaders. The loyalist papers teemed with protests from inhabitants of the county and broadsides of a like tenor were also issued. On April 13, 1775, a number of freeholders and inhabitants of the county assembled again at White Plains, for the purpose, it was declared, "of choosing delegates to represent this colony in the next Continental Congress." The delegates were duly chosen by a minority of the convention, the majority refusing to take part in the proceedings, and drawing up a protest, of which the following is an extract, which was signed by over three hundred persons, among whom we find many inhabitants of the borough:

> We, the subscribers, freeholders, and inhabitants of the county of Westchester, having assembled at White Plains, in consequence of certain advertisements, do now declare, that we met here to express our honest abhorrence of all unlawful congresses and committees, and that we are determined, at the hazard of our lives and properties, to support the King and Constitution, and that we acknowledge no representatives but the General Assembly, to whose wisdom and integrity we submit the guardianship of our rights and privileges.

The protest was published in Rivington's "Gazetteer," the leading Tory organ, which commented as follows:

> The Committee that was chosen, may, with some kind of propriety, be said to represent those particular persons who chose them. But how can they be denominated representatives of the County of Westchester, who, in general, abhor Committees and Committeemen, and are determined to take no steps that may have the least tendency to lead them into Rebellion, we cannot conceive... And we doubt not but the impartial public will consider the matter in this light, and not esteem the act of a few individuals, unlawfully assembled, as the act (which most assuredly it is not) of the very respectable, populous, and loyal county of Westchester.

The author of the protest, and the one who communicated it and the report of the proceedings to the "Gazetteer" was Isaac Wilkins,

brother-in-law of Colonel Lewis Morris, who was also reputed to be the author of Tory articles signed A. W. F., initials that were taken to stand for "A Westchester Farmer." The news of Concord and Lexington came a few days after the publication of the protest; and Mr. Wilkins, in view of the excitement of the populace over the news, and their indignation at his blatant Toryism, believed that his life was in danger, and so fled the country to England; he was probably the first of the Tories, very garrulous when there was peace, to take to his heels, but thousands of others followed the same track before the war was over. The news from Lexington greatly strengthened the patriot party. On May 8, a Committee of Westchester County was formed, with Gilbert Drake as chairman. On the twenty-third of the same month a Provincial Congress was organized in New York City by delegates from all the counties in the colony and Philip Van Brugh Livingston was elected its president. The importance of fortifying the pass at Kingsbridge was recognized at an early period, and immediately after the arrival of the news of the Concord fight, without any formal order from the Committee of One Hundred, numbers of men were employed in transporting cannon from the city to that point. Though the Provincial Congress appointed a committee to report upon a plan of entrenchments nothing further was done. On May 25, however, the Continental Congress resolved:

> First, that a Post be immediately taken and fortified at or near King's Bridge, in the Colony of New York, and that the ground be chosen with a particular view to prevent communication between the City of New York and the country from being interrupted by land; Secondly, that the Militia of New York be armed and trained, and in constant readiness to act at a moment's warning; and that a number of men be immediately embodied... to prevent any attempts that may be made to gain possession of the City, and to interrupt its intercourse with the country.

These resolutions, with instructions to keep them as secret as possible, reached the Provincial Congress at New York on May 29, and a Committee was accordingly appointed, consisting of Captain Richard Montgomery of Kingsbridge, Henry Glenn, Robert Yates, and Colonels James Van Cortlandt and James Holmes, the last two of Westchester County, both of whom later became Tories. This committee was instructed "to view the ground at or near King's Bridge, and report to this Congress whether the ground near King's Bridge will admit of making a fortification there that will be tenable." In June, the Continental Congress took steps to form a Continental army, and appointed George Washington commander-in-chief. New York was to furnish three thousand troops to be divided into four regiments, which later became the New York Line, commanded by McDougal, James Clinton, Wynkoop, and Ritzema, this last commanding the Third Regiment of

the New York Line at the Battle of Chatterton's Hill, or White Plains, doing his duty well, though a short time after the battle he left the patriots and joined the invading army. Some of the Westchester men enrolled in the Fourth Regiment of Militia, commanded at first by Colonel James Holmes of Bedford, who later turned Tory and became lieutenant-colonel of a battalion of Westchester County refugees in the British Army.

Revolutionary Companies From Bronx Territory—A militia bill was passed in accordance with the recommendations of the Continental Congress, and Westchester County was divided into precincts or beats, each furnishing a company, which companies were formed in three battalions. Each company was to elect its own officers. The first company to perfect its organization was that from the borough-town of Westchester, this on August 24. Later West Farms and Fordham withdrew from the Westchester beat and formed their own company. Eastchester formed another beat and raised its own company; New Rochelle and Pelham Manor formed another beat; and the manor of Philipseburgh was divided into six beats, of which the Yonkers beat was within the borough. The companies above mentioned formed the South Battalion of Westchester County. Its officers were Joseph Drake, colonel; James Hammond, lieutenant-colonel; Moses Drake, first major; Jonathan C. Graham, second major; Abraham Emmons, adjutant; and Theophilus Bartow, quarter-master. Among the company officers will be found some of the best-known of the old family names in the borough. Every man between the ages of fifteen and fifty was obliged to provide himself with a good musket and bayonet, a sword or tomahawk, a cartridge box and belts, twenty-three rounds of cartridges, twelve flints and a knapsack, and to keep himself provided with a pound of gunpowder and three pounds of bullets in reserve; he was also required to parade for drill on the first Monday of each month. All these things he had to do at his own expense, under the penalty of fine and imprisonment. This of course bore very heavily on the poorer classes who had much difficulty in feeding and clothing their families. It is not to be wondered at that when De Lancey and others came recruiting and offering bounties, clothes, accoutrements, and good pay in current money, and not in depreciated Continental bills, that these men with the fear of fine and imprisonment before their eyes for recalcitrancy in obeying the orders of the Provincial Congress, readily and willingly joined the standards of the anti-American battalions. One of these corps was that of the Queen's Rangers, organized by Colonel Robert Rogers of New Hampshire in 1776 from the so-called loyalists of Connecticut and Westchester County to the number of four hundred. They afterwards

became reduced in numbers; and in the autumn of 1777, after the battle of Brandywine, Major Simcoe of the British Army, at his own urgent request, was appointed to command them with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. He soon made them models of order and discipline. The following advertisement from "Rivington's Royal Gazette" will give some idea of the inducements offered to the loyalists:

All Aspiring Heroes
have now an opportunity of distinguishing themselves by
joining
The Queen's Rangers Hussars
commanded by
Lieutenant-Colonel Simcoe.

Any spirited young man will receive every encouragement, be immediately mounted on an elegant horse, and furnished with clothing, and accoutrements, &c., to the amount of forty guineas, by applying to Cornet Spencer, at his quarters, No. 133 Water Street, or his rendezvous, Hewett's Tavern, near the Coffee-house and the Defeat of Brandywine on Golden Hill.

Whoever brings a recruit shall instantly receive two guineas.

Vivant Rex et Regina.

There were two other acts of the Provincial authorities which also bore heavily upon the inhabitants and tended to increase their discontent. One was an order from the Provincial Congress to all civil and military officers to arrest and confine all persons who did not sign the Association of the colonies, or who denied the rights and orders of the Provincial or Continental congresses, or who expressed sympathy with the royal cause, or who furnished supplies of any kind to the British Fleet or Army. The other act by the Committee of Safety authorized the seizure of guns, powder, bullets, and other munitions of war from any one who had not signed the Association, for the use of the poorly-equipped and ill-supplied troops which the colony was putting in the field for the expedition against Canada. The first act prevented freedom of speech and deprived the inhabitants of their ordinary markets, while placing them at the mercy of every enemy they may have made willing to give information or to throw suspicion upon them; the second deprived them of their personal property without compensation or due process of law. As an instance illustrating the diversity of opinion which divided the Provincial Congress, their attempt to show allegiance to both king and Continental Congress, the rather ludicrous dilemma in which the members found themselves at the end of June, 1775, may be cited. Governor Tryon had returned from England and had notified the Provincial Congress that he would land and consult with them on the state of the colony on June 25. Notice was also received that General Washington would arrive in New York on the same day as the governor on his way to take command of

the American Army round Boston. The Congress wished to do equal honor to both, but were divided in opinion as to who would be received first by the troops. It was at last decided to divide the troops for the reception of the distinguished visitors, but Washington fortunately arrived several hours before the royal governor and thus relieved them of their embarrassment.

These were some of the circumstances that ruled the condition of feeling in the territory of The Bronx at the beginning of the Revolutionary era. From the autumn of 1776 to that of 1783, Westchester County was harried more than any other section of the country; and the losses and sufferings of the inhabitants more than repaid them for their lack of patriotism in the face of the struggle of their country. While no great battle took place within the land of the borough the military operations were never-ending and hardly a week passed that did not see some foray or encounter. One of the earliest military performances was an expedition from Connecticut under Captain Isaac Sears, or "King" Sears, in November, 1775, for the purpose of regulating Westchester County, disarming the loyalists, and seizing the persons of several of the most prominent Tories. The expedition started with sixteen men, but gradually increased to over eighty. On November 22, an advanced guard entered the borough-town of Westchester and seized Mayor Underhill and Rector Samuel Seabury. The rector had rendered himself obnoxious to the patriots by his written articles against the colonists, by his fulminations from the pulpit, and by his having signed the White Plains protest. Captain Lathrop, with his two prisoners, then started over the road to Kingsbridge, but met the main body under Sears coming over the Boston Road. They all returned to Eastchester, where the main body of the raiders had already seized Jonathan Fowler, Judge of the Superior Court of Common Pleas. The three prisoners were sent under escort to Horseneck in Connecticut, the present site of Greenwich, while the main body of about seventy-five horsemen resumed their march over the Boston Road into the city of New York, where, at noon on November 23, they destroyed the printing establishment of James Rivington, the royalist printer and publisher of the obnoxious "Gazetteer." The expedition then returned to Connecticut, carrying with them most of the printing type, which was afterwards melted into bullets. The prisoners were not released until the following January; and when the reverend doctor returned to Westchester he found his school dispersed and his affairs in confusion. Like his friend Wilkins he left the town, going first to Long Island, later to New York City, where he remained as chaplain in the British Army until the end of the war.

The cannon taken to Kingsbridge on the arrival of the news from Lexington, numbering probably two hundred and fifty all told, were of all sizes, shapes, qualities, and materials; brass, bronze, and iron; good, bad, and indifferent. They were stored at several places, fifty or more at John Williams's, later Williamsbridge, probably one hundred at Valentine's Hill, others at the northern end of Manhattan. They were not protected or guarded in any way, so that any one who wished to injure them could do so with impunity. On January 17, 1776, most of them were found spiked, while others were choked up with stones, and all of them were in an unserviceable condition. Suspicion fell upon the Tories of Westchester, Eastchester, West Farms, and Yonkers; but an inquiry placed the deed upon John Fowler and William Lounsberry of Mamaroneck, both of whom were imprisoned. The purchase of a quantity of rat-tail files led to their conviction. Jacamiah Allen was employed to unspike the guns at a cost of twenty shillings a gun. This he succeeded in doing, and they were later mounted upon the fortifications built by the Americans. The committee of which Captain Richard Montgomery was the head reported on June 3, 1775, as to the fortifications at Kingsbridge. They recommended that a post of three hundred men be established on Marble Hill, near Hyatt's tavern, Manhattan, and selected sites on Tetard's Hill to the east, and on Tippett's Hill to the west of the bridge for the placing of redoubts when the troops had been properly organized, so that the work could be done by them. Under the command of Major General Charles Lee, who was ordered from Boston to the command of New York, and its environs, work was begun upon the suggested redoubts; but it was not until after the evacuation of Boston by the British on March 17, 1776, and the assumption of the command in New York by Washington in person, that any great progress was made upon the fortifications. Early in the month of June Washington visited the neighborhood of Kingsbridge and inspected the ground. Realizing the importance of the place, he selected seven sites for redoubts, two of which—the Cock Hill fort overlooking the mouth of Spuyten Duyvil Creek, and a fort on Marble Hill, afterwards called by the British Fort Prince Charles—were on the island of Manhattan; the remaining five were in the borough. He immediately set two Pennsylvania regiments to work on the forts, and also various bodies of militia, as they reported for duty; for by this time General Howe had arrived off New York and was threatening the city, so that reinforcements for the Americans were coming in from all directions. In orders of July 2, Washington placed General Mifflin in direct command of the Kingsbridge neighborhood with instructions to complete the works as rapidly as possible, so that work was carried on night and day.

The Forts at Kingsbridge—The British fleet arrived off New York in July under the command of Admiral Lord Howe and anchored in the Lower Bay. The point of debarkation of the British forces was, of course, a matter of conjecture on the part of the Americans; but Mifflin believed they would land near Yonkers and throw a line of strong entrenchments from the Hudson River to the Harlem, thus shutting the Americans up in New York and preventing their escape by way of Kingsbridge. Therefore while the Howes were attempting to negotiate with Washington for a cessation of hostilities under the instructions of King George, which empowered them to act as commissioners for the purpose, the work of fortifying Kingsbridge went rapidly forward. These posts, which fell into the hands of the British in October and were further strengthened by them, were located as follows:

Numbers One, Two, and Three, to reproduce the British nomenclature, were situated on Spuyten Duyvil Neck, on what is said to have been the site of the Indian village of Nipinichsen. Number One was a square, stone redoubt overlooking the Hudson River and the mouth of the creek. It forms the foundation of what is known in the vicinity as the Strang house, originally built by a Mr. Cameron. When the house was built both Indian and Revolutionary relics were unearthed, and some of these were preserved. Number Two was a small circular fort on the crown of Tippett's Hill, and was called "Fort Swartout" by the Americans, in honor of Colonel Abraham Swartout, whose regiment built it, as well as a small battery at the mouth of the creek near the site of the Spuyten Duyvil station of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad. This battery, with the Cock Hill fort on Manhattan, was to prevent the enemy from entering the creek in boats. Upon the British map made for General Howe by his engineer, Joseph Claude Sauthier, and also upon the map made for Washington by S. Lewis, Fort Number Two is called "Fort Independence," and the elevation, Tetard's Hill, the land to the northward toward Seton Hospital being called the Heights of Fordham. This, notes Jenkins, is an error that has misled historians of the Revolution when describing the events in the vicinity. Number Three was a small stone redoubt on the easterly side of Tippett's Hill, which commanded the junction of the Spuyten Duyvil road and the present Riverdale Avenue, as well as the extreme northerly end of Manhattan Island opposite the fort on Marble Hill, called Fort Prince Charles. Between One and Two were two ravelins, and between Two and Three, a curtain which joined the two redoubts. All three of these redoubts were hastily constructed by the Americans and abandoned by them when they evacuated this section before the Westchester campaign; the British seized and

PORTRAITS OF THE SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

strengthened them before the attack on Fort Washington in the early part of November, 1776. In November, 1778, they had a garrison of one hundred and ten officers and men. They were finally abandoned by the British in the fall of 1779.

The fortification called Number Four by the British was on the eastern side of the valley, between the Boston and Albany roads, both of which it commanded. It was the largest of all the fortifications in the neighborhood, and was a bastioned earthwork, with ravelins to the east and southeast, and was built by the Pennsylvania Line, assisted by the militia, under the direction of Colonel Rufus Putnam, the engineer of Fort Washington. Upon the approach of the Hessians under Knyphausen from New Rochelle, Colonel Lasher, the American commander, destroyed the barracks, October 28, and went to reinforce Colonel Maghaw at Fort Washington. He left in such haste that he was obliged to leave the cannon and three hundred stand of arms behind him. General Knyphausen took possession the next day, and the British held it for three years. On August 16, 1779, they removed the guns; on the seventeenth they demolished the magazine, and on September 12 they abandoned the fort altogether. The house formerly belonged to the late William O. Giles. It is built within the old fort and it is stated that when the cellar was dug eleven cannon and several cannon balls, calthorns, and other military relics were found. Number Four was the largest redoubt in the vicinity and was the true Fort Independence of the Americans. The fort was built upon the farm of Major-General Montgomery, who probably selected the site when examining the section with the committee appointed by the Provincial Congress of 1775. A new street, a continuation of the old Boston Post Road of 1673, passes down the hill from Sedgwick Avenue, connecting the Boston with the Albany Post Road, and encroaches slightly upon the ramparts of the old fort. Another street, a little west of the street referred to, also led down the hill past the old Montgomery house and is called Fort Independence Street.

From the map drawn up at the British headquarters in 1782 or 1783 it is seen that there were seven other redoubts lying south of Number Four along the Fordham ridge, making eleven in all from the Hudson to the shore of the Harlem abreast of Fort George on Manhattan. In addition there are shown entrenchments across the Boston Road to the east of Number Four and a small redoubt, called the Negro Fort, about halfway between Fort Independence and Williamsbridge. It was so called because, so it is stated, it was garrisoned by negroes from Virginia; it was situated just south of the old Boston Road, the part of it called Van Cortlandt Avenue, about where the new Concourse joins

Mosholu Parkway. A semicircular redoubt was also erected by the orders of General Heath about one thousand feet west of the bridge across the Bronx River, to command the passage of that stream and the Boston Road to Williams' Bridge. It was located on the Bussing farm, and its site is now within the limits of Woodlawn Cemetery, close to the point of intersection of the old Boston and Gun Hill roads.

The fortifications called Number Five was a square redoubt of about seventy feet, situated on the old Tetard farm, due south of Fort Independence, and commanding the Farmers' Bridge. It can still be distinguished at the southwest corner of the Jerome Park reservoir, a few rods east of Sedgwick Avenue, adjoining the Ames property. It was occupied by the British in 1777, and abandoned September 18, 1779. In the summer of 1910 Reginald P. Bolton, Edward Chagamen Hall, and W. L. Calver carefully excavated the ground within the old redoubt and were rewarded by finding remains of brick fireplaces and other military relics, including regimental buttons of privates of the 13th Pennsylvania Regiment and the following British infantry regiments: 4th, 10th, 17th, 26th, 28th, 44th, 52nd, 54th, 57th, 64th, and 71st Highlanders, and also an officer's button of the 17th British. Though there were eleven of these redoubts the British numbers ran only to eight, as several of them had special names, or were of such small size as not to merit special mention, being attached to the larger fortifications near them.

Numbers Six, Seven, and Eight were small redoubts commanding the Harlem River from Fordham Heights, and strung along to the southward as far as the present Burnside Avenue. Of these Number Eight was the most famous, as Colonel De Lancey's cantonment was under its guns for protection from the American attacks; it also protected the pontoon bridge which connected the mainland with Manhattan near Fort George, over which the British cowboys drove their cattle, wood, forage, and other products of their raids. The Americans were not intimidated, however, by the proximity of the fort and made the life of the British in the vicinity pretty lively on numerous occasions. "Before leaving these heights, consecrated by valor and patriotism," remarks Lossing in the "Pictorial History of the Revolution," "let us turn toward the distant hills of Westchester, where almost every rood of earth is scarred by the intrencher's mattock, or made memorable by deeds of daring and of suffering." The reference here, Jenkins notes, is chiefly to the "distant hills" of North Castle, White Plains, and Peekskill; but the borough section of the county, so long occupied by the British forces, must have had numerous fortifications, which the local historian has failed to record, and which modern improvements

have obliterated. Kingsbridge has been more fortunate in both respects; and the local historian, Thomas Henry Edsall, determined the sites of the old redoubts before the knowledge of their position passed away with the older inhabitants. The Headquarters map, published in 1900, located these redoubts with a fair degree of accuracy.

Hostilities About the Harlem—On the twelfth of July the "Rose" and the "Phoenix," British vessels of war, with several tenders, sailed up the Hudson, and, being unaware of the American fortifications, anchored off the entrance to Spuyten Duyvil Creek. The batteries opened fire on them and did great execution. The vessels then proceeded up the Hudson as far as Fort Montgomery in the Highlands. Their object was probably to communicate with the pro-British element along the banks of the river and to provide them with arms. Their presence called for more troops and reinforcements were hurried to the neighborhood of Kingsbridge. On August 13, General Heath, to whose memoirs we owe so much for our knowledge of Revolutionary affairs in Westchester County, was appointed to the command of the district of the Highlands, extending south to the Harlem River. On August 17th the British vessels were anchored off Mount Saint Vincent, then called Yonkers, and an attempt was made to destroy them with fire-ships. One of the tenders was consumed, and the next morning the remaining vessels dropped down stream, easily passing through the obstructions in the river between Fort Washington and Fort Lee, much to the chagrin of Washington and his engineers. General Heath and General George Clinton watched from Tippett's Hill the daring attempts of the fire-ships to destroy the vessels. Several days later, a French engineer, named Martin, was assigned by Washington to complete the works, and Clinton's brigade was ordered into camp. The regiment of Colonel Thomas took camp south of Fort Independence, that of Colonel Graham about half a mile south, and the regiments of Colonels Paulding and Nicholas at Fordham and the base of Tetard's Hill, while Colonel Swartout occupied Tippett's Hill and threw up the redoubts that have been described.

On August 27th, the battle of Long Island was fought and the Provincial Congress, then sitting at Harlem, became alarmed for the safety of the city of New York and ordered the records removed to the camp at Kingsbridge, from which place they were later taken to White Plains as well as to other places as the seat of government shifted during the ensuing six years. Heath gathered all the boats he could find along the two rivers for the transportation of Washington's army across the East River from its dangerous position at Brooklyn. During the morning of the twenty-seventh while the battle was raging on Long

Island two ships and a brig came to anchor a little above Frog Point, later called Throgg's Neck. Colonel Graham's regiment was ordered immediately to the spot by General Heath to prevent the British from landing to plunder and burn. Before the regiment arrived several barges from the ships, full of armed men, landed on City Island and killed a number of cattle. Two companies of the Americans were ferried over to the island and compelled the enemy to withdraw. The British took one prisoner and fourteen head of cattle. but the rest of the cattle was secured. On August 29th the ships fell down to Hunt's Point. On September 13th the city of New York was evacuated by the Americans and the march was taken up for Harlem Heights and Kingsbridge. The British commanders considered the occasion opportune for the renewal of overtures in the direction of peace and sent the captured General Sullivan on parole to carry their message to Congress at Philadelphia. Three commissioners were sent by Congress as a result to confer with General Howe, namely, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and John Rutledge. As Howe refused to treat with the Americans in any other character than that of private citizens, and as the three commissioners stood out for a recognition of American independence, the negotiations fell through. The net result would appear to have been little more than a recognition on both sides of the spirit of determination on the other and that things could only be straightened out by a fight to a finish.

Five thousand troops were left to garrison Fort Washington, while the remainder, about nine thousand in number, went into quarters on the borough side of Harlem, extending from Kingsbridge, through Fordham, Morrisania, West Farms, and Westchester to Throgg's Neck and Eastchester. A floating, or pontoon, bridge was thrown across Spuyten Duyvil Creek to afford easy communication between the two divisions of the army. A similar bridge was constructed by the British after their occupation of the same neighborhood; it crossed the creek about midway between the Kingsbridge and the Hudson, connecting Tippett's Neck and Cox's or Cock's Hill. On the Headquarters map, referred to above, it appears very curiously as the "King's bridge." The Americans on their arrival erected barracks, and brick and stone ovens were built by the masons in the army. The different methods of working in the two armies are illustrated by the fact that redoubts, barracks, ovens, and the like, required by the Americans were built by the soldiers themselves, with slight expense to the government; while, during the British occupation of New York and its environs, under the several British commanders, seven hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling were expended for the same purposes. So tremendous

was this expense that its honesty was questioned by the government in England and it is supposed that Carleton had the Headquarters map made in order to show where and how this large sum had been expended. The American army was composed of farmers, mechanics, and artisans of all kinds; the British, of soldiers whose duty it was to fight.

The farmers in the neighborhood of the army at Kingsbridge suffered from the depredations of the troops; and fences, poultry, cattle, and crops disappeared for the use of the quartermaster's department and for the commissariat. In short the pilfering of the soldiers greatly annoyed Washington, whose prohibitions seem to have had little effect. In a prosperous farming section such as the lower part of Westchester County, there should have been plenty of horses and oxen; yet when the retreat began to the upper county so many draft animals had been stolen by individuals, both officers and men; that enough animals could not be found to drag the stores and artillery; and the guns and wagons had to be hauled in relays, and very frequently, by hand. The terms of enlistment of thousands of men expired during the months of September and October, and every one that could do so helped himself to a horse or anything else that took his fancy and which he could take back to New England. It was a providential fact that the Americans were opposed by a commander who had a good streak of laziness in him. Had it been otherwise they might have lost everything. As it was the army lost little or nothing. For several weeks the opposing armies were apparently inactive though the American forces were in reality busily engaged in strengthening the defenses of Fort Washington, the posts at Kingsbridge, at White Plains, and the various outposts; while the British were erecting a strong line of defenses to prevent attack from the north, extending along the heights commanding the plains of Harlem; that is, the present Morningside Heights, the north end of Central Park and McGowan's Pass. They also occupied the islands in the East River and thus controlled the Sound.

The most strongly garrisoned of these islands was Montressor's or Randall's, which was separated from the mainland by the narrow and shallow strait called the Bronx Kills. At the manor house of Morrisania, opposite the island, was a strong outpost of Americans; and the pickets frequently exchanged shots until the commanders of the posts mutually agreed to refrain from firing on each other's pickets. This was agreeable to the men themselves, who in their sense of security exchanged articles by throwing them across the narrow strip of water. A raw picket on the British side, who did not know of the agreement, began to fire on the sentinel opposite, who was taking no precautions to conceal himself; and in consequence a lively fusillade

ensued. The officers soon stopped the firing, the American captain indignantly remonstrated, the British captain apologized, relieved the offending sentry and punished him, and the condition of neutrality was resumed.

The restraint shown in the matter of sentries was merely diplomatic and each surveyed the position of the other with the intention of circumventing the opponent. On September 24th an attempt was made by the Americans, under Colonel Jackson and Major Henly, to surprise the British garrison on the island. The latter officer was on General Heath's staff, and was so importunate in his requests to be allowed to accompany the party that the general rather unwillingly consented, as the expedition gave every promise of success without serious danger. The American sentries had been cautioned to pay no attention to the passage of the boats down the stream; but one fool thought he knew better than his officers and insisted on challenging the boats, and finally fired on them, thus, no doubt, awakening the vigilance of the British sentries. The boats came abreast of the island in silence and arranged themselves in the order previously agreed upon for the attack. There was a whispered word of command, and Colonel Jackson's boat led the way in the darkness. As it approached the pickets fired upon it, but it kept on until its keel grated on the shore. Officers and men jumped ashore and attempted to rush the camp; but the force in their front was too strong for them, and, lacking support from behind, they were obliged to fall back. As they did so Major Henly fell mortally wounded. The well-planned attack had failed and all apparently because of the cowardice of the officers in the other boats, not one of whom followed the boat of his commander and supported it. These officers were afterwards court-martialed and cashiered. The loss of the Americans amounted to the number of twenty-two, including Major Henly, who died a few days after the affair, very much regretted, for he was a young officer of great ardor and promise. He was buried in the present Trinity Cemetery, by the side of the gallant Colonel Knowlton, the hero of the battle of Harlem Heights.

The headquarters of Washington during this time were at what was then the Roger Morris house, the colonial dwelling which became the residence of Madame Jumel, later the wife of Aaron Burr, and which is situated on the site at the junction of what are now Edgecombe Avenue and 160th Street. The house stands in a position commanding the Harlem River, the view to the southward extending to the East River, and to the northward to Kingsbridge, so that the movements of the British boats could be readily observed. These were times of great stress of body and mind for Washington; for he had on his

hands a meddling Congress, several scheming and ambitious officers, a disorganized militia, and a disintegrating army. In fact his position appeared so desperate that he made the remark privately: "Such is my situation, that if I were to wish the bitterest curse to an enemy on this side of the grave, I should put him in my stead with my feelings." He was oppressed by the idea that Howe, the British commander, intended to land at Morrisania and attack him in his position in Westchester County. He spared no exertion therefore to make his position as strong as possible and he was passing continually from his headquarters to Kingsbridge, to Valentine's Hill, to Yonkers, to Morrisania, and to Westchester, personally superintending the disposition of his troops and acquainting himself with the topography of the surrounding country.

Anterior to the Westchester campaign the British, including the Hessians who had already arrived and taken part in the battle of Long Island and those under Knyphausen whose arrival was expected daily, were not fewer than forty thousand men, and to these would have to be added the marines of the fleet, several thousand more, who were available for land duty. The regiments were the flower of the British army. Supporting them were two fleets of Admiral Lord Howe and Commodore Hotham. On the face of the returns of September 21, 1776, the Americans had in the neighborhood of thirty-two thousand men; but if we exclude the sick and furloughed, and those at Paulus Hook (Jersey City) and other small and distant posts, the number of effectives was not more than sixteen thousand. By October 5th, the number had dwindled considerably. Thirteen regiments of these troops were composed of militia, serving for a time in the Continental service, and unreliable for any service except building forts, plundering, and, as has been said, running at the first hint of danger, as Washington had learned to his sorrow at Kip's Bay. The commander of the American forces was handicapped, moreover, by the incompetency of many political officers in the army, not the least of them Major-General Charles Lee, the conceited and futile braggart, prolific in schemes and criticisms, but barren in results.

Dr. Galloway, of the British army, contrasted the two armies as follows: "The British army was commanded by able and experienced Officers; the rebel, by men destitute of military skill, or experience, and for the most part taken from the mechanic arts or the plough. The first were possessed of the best appointments, and more than they could use; and the other of the worst, and of less than they wanted. The one were attended by the ablest Surgeons and Physicians, healthy and highspirited; the other were neglected in their health, clothing, and pay,

were sickly, and constantly murmuring and dissatisfied. And the one were veteran troops, carrying victory and conquest wheresoever they were led; the other were new-raised and undisciplined, a panic-struck and defeated enemy, whenever attacked—such is the true comparison between the force sent to suppress and that which supported the Rebellion."

British at Throgg's Neck—The interval of inactivity was brought to an end on the second week of October. On the twelfth of that month Sir William Howe, leaving Earl Percy in command of the forces in New York, embarked the first detachment of his army of thirty thousand men on flat-boats and, supported by several ships of war to cover his landing, proceeded through the East River and Hell Gate, and about nine o'clock in the morning landed at Throgg's Neck. The morning was foggy so that his movement could not be seen from headquarters, and Washington was unaware of it until that afternoon, when he received an express from Heath, whose outpost at Westchester town apprised him of the landing of the enemy. During the afternoon of the same day the second detachment of Howe's army, in forty-two vessels, supported by nine vessels of war, successfully followed the first. Thus the left flank of the American army had become seriously threatened and Washington perceived that the danger was grave. The British had taken him off his guard and his action and orders as they are described on that day have been taken as indicating that the equable temper of the great man had on this occasion fallen down. On this day he appears to have thrown the major responsibility over onto Heath, authorizing him to make such dispositions of the troops as he thought proper, "begging and trusting that every opposition would be given to the enemy," and concluding with the prayer: "God bless and lead you on to victory!" The next day, which was Sunday, he took immediate and active charge of the movements of the troops, sending the necessary brigades and regiments to the support of Heath at Westchester, inspecting and patrolling his own lines and impressing the outposts with the necessity of being extra vigilant. At the first intimation of Howe's movement in the direction of Throgg's Neck, Washington had believed the advance to be a feint and that the real objective was to be by way of Morrisania; but on the thirteenth of the month he came to the conclusion that the movement was not merely intended as a deception and that the purpose of the enemy was to confine his army to the Harlem shore and cutting it off from the upper county.

Throgg's Neck may be taken as the extreme easterly point of the Westchester township. It is virtually an island, being cut off from the mainland by several tidal creeks and low, marshy meadows, which are awash at high tide. Its only connection with the mainland at that time

was the causeway and bridge over Westchester Creek at the borough town. Howe was blamed for selecting Throgg's Neck for his landing place instead of Pell's Point at Rodman's Neck, a much better place for the object he had in view; but it appears that he gave way to the judgment of his brother, the admiral, whom, from the charts and informations possessed by him, had come to the conclusion that Eastchester Bay was too shallow for his ships to cover the landing. On the other hand, it was considered that at Throgg's Neck there was plenty of water. It has to be recalled that as there was no steam power in those days the vessels were dependent on the tides and winds and had to govern their course accordingly.

Early in October General Heath had inspected the neighborhood and placed alarm posts at the bridge and at the head of Westchester Creek, where the stream was fordable, with orders to give him immediate notice of any movement of the enemy, should he attempt to land at Throgg's Neck; and he promised, in the event of a British advance, to send reinforcements at once. The men at the outposts consisted of Colonel Hand's First Regiment of Continental Foot, usually known as Hand's Riflemen. Upon the approach of the advance guard of the enemy toward the causeway on the morning of the twelfth, following the successful accomplishment of their landing, the Americans removed the planks from the bridge in accordance with instructions and gathered on the west bank of the creek under the protection of the old tidal mill, from which point they poured a heavy rifle fire upon the advancing enemy. In the face of the fusillade the British fell temporarily back. An attempt to cross the creek at the ford was also repulsed by the riflemen. The British contented themselves with these tentative efforts; and finding the Americans in sufficient force to check their advance, threw up a semicircular entrenchment to prevent the Americans in their turn from attempting to advance across the creek. Heath, having received notice of the landing, despatched the regiment of Colonel Prescott, the hero of Bunker Hill, the regiment of Colonel Graham of the New York Line, and two pieces of artillery; later, reinforcing with McDougal's brigade of New York troops. The Americans intrenched on the west side of the creek and a desultory and ineffective fire was exchanged between the hostile outposts during the remainder of the day. In the movements of the troops following October 12, many of them had been withdrawn from Manhattan Island to reinforce Heath, to watch the ships off Tarrytown, to the encampment on Valentine's Hill in the Mile Square, and to White Plains to protect the stores being moved to that place. A series of fortified camps had also been established on the west side of the Bronx River, extending from the Mile Square to White Plains.

On the fourteenth of October a council of war was called to meet near Kingsbridge, the place to be designated by General Heath, "as we are strangers to a suitable place." On the same day General Charles Lee arrived from the south, and being the senior major-general and next in rank to Washington, was entitled to the command of all the troops in the county; but although placed in command he was requested not to exercise it until he had acquainted himself with the number and disposition of the troops and with the topography of the country; so that Heath remained the responsible commander. Considering the character of Lee it is remarkable that he acceded to the request; for, if we are to judge him by his own estimate of himself, remarks Jenkins, all this knowledge and information should have been his intuitively from his very presence on the ground. On the evening of the same day all possible information being in possession of the officers the council of war reassembled at the quarters of General Lee at Kingsbridge. There were present, besides the Commander-in-Chief, Major-Generals Lee, Putnam, Heath, Sullivan and Spencer, and Brigadier-Generals Stirling, Mifflin, McDougal, Parsons, Nixon, Wadsworth, Scott, Fellows, Clinton, and Lincoln, and Colonel Knox, commanding the artillery. With only one dissentient voice, that of General George Clinton, it was decided that it was not possible in their present positions to prevent the American army from being cut off from the upper county, and that a retirement was not only expedient but necessary to prevent the surrender of the army as prisoners of war. In deference to the ill-advised wishes of the Continental Congress it was decided to maintain Fort Washington as long as possible. On the fifteenth the movement of troops to the relief of Heath continued; on the sixteenth Washington finished his survey of the threatened points by visiting Pell's Point and the establishment of an outpost at the entrance to the Neck. This was a very important move, as was made clear by later developments.

During the course of the week that followed his occupation of Throgg's Neck, Howe, the British commander, directed the establishment of a base there and the reception of numerous reinforcements. Finally word came of the arrival of seventy-two ships with the German mercenaries under Knyphausen. On the morning of the eighteenth, Howe embarked his army in over two hundred boats, protected by the smaller war vessels, and passed from the northern side of Throgg's Neck across Westchester Bay, and landed at the end of Pell's Point, opposite City Island. The American post at Westchester saw the movements in its front and immediately notified Heath, who came up with numerous reinforcements, which, upon the receipt of an express from the alarm post at the ford stating that the enemy was attempting to cross there, were diverted to its support. No advance was made by the enemy at either

point, and Washington, who was personally on the ground, believed that the enemy's movement was a feint and that his real point of attack would be at Morrisania; he therefore ordered Heath and his troops to that position to watch the enemy. Howe's landing was successfully made at Pell's Point; and nothing prevented the capture or destruction of the widely scattered American army but the outpost at the entrance of the Neck which transmitted notification of the enemy manœuvre in time.

Battle of Pell's Point—The outpost at the entrance of the Neck had been strengthened by the brigade of General James Clinton, who, however, was not personally on the ground. It consisted of the regiments of Colonels Glover, Shepard, Read, and Baldwin, in all about seven hundred and fifty men with three field-pieces, all under the command of Colonel Glover, whose regiment was composed of Marbleheaders, sturdy fishermen and sailors of Massachusetts. Their amphibious qualities had been utilized by Washington in the withdrawal of the army from Brooklyn after the defeat of Long Island, Glover being in charge of the embarkation of the troops into the boats named by his fishermen-soldiers, whose muffled oars made no sound to betray the retreat to the enemy on that foggy August morning; and later, when Trenton was the object of that sad but glorious Christmas march, it was these same Marbleheaders who took the army across the Delaware through the drifting masses of ice. This brigade was encamped in the neighborhood of the Boston Post Road, somewhere in the town of Eastchester. The British movement was concealed from the outpost near the shore by the darkness of the early morning; and the landing had actually been made before it was discovered by Colonel Glover himself, who at once sent an express to Major-General Lee at Valentine's Hill, over three miles distant. It does not appear that Lee gave any orders or sent any troops to Glover's support, but spent the day inactively, so that the glory of the day belongs to Glover and the brave men under his command. Upon discovering the landing Glover at once ordered the brigade under arms and advanced them toward the point, leaving his own regiment with the field-pieces as a reserve under the command of Captain Curtis; so that the number of men actually engaged in the fight which followed did not exceed four hundred. Glover advanced a guard of forty men in command of a captain by way of the road toward City Island; while he placed the regiment of Colonel Read behind a stone wall on the north side of the road, the regiment of Colonel Shepard farther to the rear on the south side of the road, behind a fine double stone wall, and the regiment of Colonel Baldwin still farther to the rear behind the regiment of Colonel Read on the north side of the road. These positions probably extended on to the Prospect Hill, or "Split Rock" road. Having com-

pleted his arrangements for the ambuscade he rode forward to his advanced guard.

Rodman's Neck is almost an island, the tide ebbing and flowing over the salt meadows which separate it from the mainland. The City Island road passes over the meadows on a causeway, both ends of which were heavily wooded; the meadows, about one hundred and fifty yards across, are clear. To the south, at the west end of the causeway, are two great boulders marking the first position of the patriots, and where the fight began. From the causeway to the British landing place near the Bowne house is about a mile and a half. As Glover's advanced guard of forty men approached the causeway, a similar advanced guard of the enemy debouched unexpectedly from the woods across the meadows. Glover ordered his men to advance toward the approaching foe, and when about fifty yards apart, the British poured in a heavy but ineffective fire. The return fire of the Americans "fell four of them," as Glover quaintly puts it. A spirited fire was maintained for a few minutes, during which two Americans were killed and several wounded; but the enemy, heavily reinforced, compelled the guard to retreat. The British, supposing the victory to be theirs, pursued the fleeing Americans; when suddenly, within thirty yards of them, arose a long line of men from behind a stone wall, who poured in a murderous volley, compelling the British in their turn to flee without returning the fire. Five volleys were fired by Read's regiment upon the mass of chasseurs, grenadiers, and light infantry crowded upon the narrow road. For an hour and a half after this affair, so it is stated, no further attack was made. Then a heavy body of the enemy, supported by seven pieces of artillery, and comprising about four thousand men, once more advanced along the road, shouting and firing their guns harmlessly at their invisible foes. Suddenly, from Read's regiment again came an unexpected and death-dealing volley, which brought the British to a halt and a realization of the strength of their adversaries. Seven volleys are said to have been fired by the Americans, while the British and their German mercenaries poured in "showers of musquetry and cannon-balls." Read's work was done and he withdrew to beyond the flank of Shepard's regiment on the opposite side of the road.

The British on this occasion also, learning little from their previous experiences and believing the Americans to have been repulsed, advanced in solid masses in pursuit; when from the double stone wall on their left flank, Shepard's regiment arose and poured in volley after volley upon the now panic-stricken men. The British officers had indeed great difficulty in rallying their men, and a formation was again made for the advance. This time the Americans realized that they had done pretty well all they could in the encounter and recognizing that

the disparity in numbers was too great to allow them to hope for victory in a front to front fight withdrew behind the third line of Baldwin's regiment. The enemy had by this time learned something of the strategy of their foes and as a result advanced cautiously in pursuit. Baldwin's fire was well delivered, but the British had the advantage of position and were able to use their artillery to the discomfiture of the Americans. Stubbornly and slowly the Americans fell back over the "Split Rock" road and Wolf's Lane until they reached the Boston Post Road, where they crossed Hutchinson's River, removed the planks from the bridge and took a position on the heights overlooking the stream, where Captain Curtis was in reserve with the artillery. The British cautiously followed the retiring Americans, with whom there was a constant interchange of shots, until they reached the river, when they stopped the pursuit. An artillery fire was kept up on both sides until late in the day, but little or no damage was done to either side. Glover remarks: "After fighting all day, without victuals or drink, lay as a picquet all night, the heavens over us and the earth under us, which was all we had, having left all our baggage at the old encampment we left in the morning." The next day, Saturday the eighteenth, the brigade withdrew to the Mile Square, three miles distant, to the westward of the Bronx River.

This engagement has been called the battle of Pell's Point, and it is the most important, both from its effects and from the number of men engaged, that took place within the territory of what is now the Borough of The Bronx, though part of the line of retreat is in the present village of Pelham Manor, and the final position of the Americans is in the present city of Mount Vernon. The beginning and the main part of the battle were within the present Pelham Bay Park. The American loss amounted to six men killed, and Colonel Shepard and twelve men wounded. At this time no report of the losses of the German mercenaries was made, except to their respective sovereigns; but from the statements of deserters who came into the American lines from different regiments and at different places during the following week, and from both official and non-official sources, the British loss can readily be placed at between eight hundred and one thousand killed, wounded and missing. General Gage reported the entire loss in killed and wounded at Bunker Hill as one thousand and fifty-four; so that this battle, which many historians ignore, was almost equally disastrous to the British and their German allies.

There are also other results that have to be noted in regard to it. It saved the American army, for the British commander had received a check that was sufficient to convince him that his advance into the country was not going to be the picnic he had promised himself. He delayed his movements until the twentieth of the month, when he advanced to the heights above New Rochelle, where, two days later, he was joined

by the second division of the Germans, consisting of eight thousand men under General Knyphausen, who had landed in New York on the eighteenth and been transported in boats to Davenport's Neck in New Rochelle. Washington, in general orders, dated Headquarters, Harlem Heights, October 21, 1776, complimented Colonel Glover and his command: He added:

> At the same time he hopes that every part of the Army will do their duty with equal duty and zeal when called upon: and that neither dangers, difficulties, nor hardships will discourage soldiers engaged in the cause of Liberty, and contending for all that freemen hold dear and valuable.

Washington on October 20th learned through the investigations of an engineer officer, Colonel Rufus Putnam, of the presence of the British at New Rochelle and of the danger to the stores at White Plains. He personally visited the latter place on the twenty-first of the month, inspected the ground, selected the new position of the troops, and returned to the neighborhood of Kingsbridge, where the movements preparatory to retreat were already in progress. The retreat began the same day by way of Valentine's Hill and the roads to the westward of the Bronx River, the main route being over what is now called the "pipe-line," via Tuckahoe. The progress of this masterly withdrawal of the whole army in the face of a superior enemy, without the loss to the retiring army in either men or stores, showed the military genius of Washington to be of no ordinary kind. The battle of White Plains occurred on the twenty-eighth, and on the fourth of November General Howe withdrew from the front of the Americans, his Westchester campaign a complete failure.

Battle of White Plains—White Plains, the locality which appears to have been selected by the opposing forces as the field on which the great questions then pending between Great Britian and the United States of America were to be decided by the arbitrament of war, is situated on the upper extremity of a fine plain, about twenty-six miles from the city of New York. The village at the time of the battle was composed of a number of comfortable dwellings scattered along the sides of two or three roads which converged at that place, with two taverns, a Presbyterian meeting-house, a Wesleyan Methodist chapel, and the court house of the county, within which probably all the county houses were also sheltered. About three quarters of a mile westward from the principal roadway of the unpretentious little village flowed the small stream, then, as now, called the "Bronx River," forming the western boundary of the plain referred to, and separating it from the manor of Philipsburgh. To the northwest and the northeast of the village were abrupt elevations, united by less elevated ground with a gradual descent to the village, the whole forming the northern boundary of White Plains; and beyond these flanking elevations and that

intervening high ground to the northward of the village, and not more than a mile distant from the northern extremity of it, in the town of Northcastle, was the high and rocky ground, later well known in history as that to which the American army swung back, after the action on Chatterton's Hill.

The site of the encampment which the American army occupied was on the high grounds, northwestward and northeastward from the village and the lower grounds between them, with covering positions on either flank. A temporary line of works had been previously constructed along the northern line of the road which extended from the meeting-house of the Presbyterian church, past the house of Jacob Purdy, to the Bronx River—that road which connected White Plains with Dobbs Ferry; but the entrenchments which were thrown up for the defense of the army, occupied a line from the Bronx River over the summit of the hill which is to the northward of the Harlem Railroad Station, eastward to the postroad, which was the principal street of the village. Occupying the postroad was a strong earthwork, some small remains of which, bearing an old howitzer, *en barbette*, long endured; and eastward from that central earthwork, up the gradual slope to what was then known as Horton's Pond, later known as St. Mary's Lake. The right flank of the line was covered by the brigades commanded respectively by Generals McDougal and Lord Stirling, and its left was covered by the brigades commanded respectively by Generals George Clinton, John Morrin Scott, and Samuel H. Parsons, the two former having been posted near the Purchase, and the latter at the head of King Street, near what was Rye Pond, but now the eastern arm of the great Kensico reservoir. In the summer of 1907, White Plains Chapter, Daughters of the American Revolution, of which, at the time, Mrs. Julia Powell was the regent, had the howitzer on the Post Road referred to, which for many years had lain partly hidden in the line of earthworks marking a position on the battlefield, on the west side of Broadway, excavated and mounted on a granite base. On October 28th of that year, the one hundred and thirty-first anniversary of the battle of White Plains, a bronze tablet was affixed to a large block and appropriate civic exercises marked the event. The inscription reads:

> This mortar and this remnant of the
> Revolutionary entrenchments of October, 1776,
> mark the final stand by General Washington
> at the end of his long retreat. The abandonment
> by Gen. Howe of his purpose to capture the
> American Army, and the revival of the hopes
> for national independence.

On October 27th the small force which had been left in Fort Indepen-

dence, when General Heath's division was moved near Kingsbridge to the White Plains, was ordered to remove the cannon and stores from that post to Fort Washington; to burn several barracks which had been erected there with so much difficulty and at so great an expense; and "with all possible dispatch" to move by way of the Albany Post Road as far as Dobbs Ferry, to the White Plains; and on the following day, without having removed the cannon, three hundred stand of small arms, five tons of bar iron, and "a great quantity of spears, shot, shells, etc., too numerous to mention," which were within or near the fort, and all of which were recklessly abandoned, that small command, numbering not more than four hundred effective men, joined the main body of the division, on the left of the line, at White Plains. The enemy, who had occupied the entire lower portion of Westchester County, after the American forces had been concentrated at the Plains, occupied the position on the evening of the day on which Colonel Lasher had abandoned it.

Following the success of the British in gaining possession of Chatterton Hill at White Plains they made no immediate attempt to pursue the retreating Americans; but formed and dressed their line, and made a settlement there. The strength of the Americans engaged on the plain was not far from twenty-five hundred effective officers and privates; that of the regiments who composed the force on the top of the hill, who defended the position, and who were really the heroes of the day, exclusive of the company of artillery, who rendered no effective service, was not far from seventeen hundred effective officers and privates. The strength of all the force which was directed against that feeble body of men cannot be definitely ascertained, since the Hessian artillerists, on the eastern bank of the river, whose fire was certainly to some extent effective, were clearly as much a portion of that antagonistic force, as those who crossed the river and assaulted the position, or as those who charged on the right flank of the struggling Americans and assisted in driving them from the hill. Besides these Hessian artillerists there were four regiments of British troops, commanded by General Leslie; the Hessian regiment, probably from Colonel Donop's command, who occupied the place of danger and honor, as the forlorn hope; the three regiments of Hessians, commanded by Colonel Rall; and the four or five regiments of Hessians, commanded by Colonel Donop, each or all of whom could not have contained fewer than six hundred officers and privates, making an aggregate of about seven thousand, five hundred effective men. The loss sustained by the Americans was not as great as was at first supposed—the return to the camp of the greater number of the fugitive New Englanders reduced the supposed losses from "between four or five hundred in killed, wounded, and missing," which was the first estimate, to twenty-two killed, twenty-

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four wounded, and one missing, in the detachment commanded by General Spencer; and, exclusive of the losses sustained by the regiments commanded, respectively, by Colonels Haslet and Brooks, of which no returns have been found, the loss of those who were on the top of the hill and who fought the battle, was two captains, four sergeants, one corporal, and eighteen privates, killed; one colonel, three lieutenants, one ensign, four sergeants, and forty-three privates, wounded; and sixteen privates missing. Among those who were killed were Captains Bracco and Scott, of Colonel Smallwood's regiment; and among those who were wounded were Colonel Smallwood and Lieutenants Goldsmith and Waters, of the same regiment. General Howe reported to his government at home, evidently including all those who were captured in Westchester County, that one captain, two lieutenants, one quarter-master, and thirty-five privates were taken, "October 12th—White Plains;" but we have no means for ascertaining who of these were taken prisoners on October 28th. The loss sustained by the Second Brigade of British troops, commanded by General Leslie, included Lieutenant-Colonel Carr, Captains Deering and Grove, Lieutenant Jocelyn, Ensign Eagle, one sergeant, and twenty-one rank and file, killed; Lieutenant-Colonel Walcott, Captain Fitzgerald, Captain-Lieutenant Massey, Lieutenants Taylor, Banks, and Roberts, twelve sergeants, and one hundred and two rank and file, wounded; and two rank and file missing. The three regiments composing the brigade, commanded by Colonel Rall, sustained a loss of eight rank and file, killed; Lieutenant Muhlhausen, one sergeant, and forty-four rank and file, wounded; and one horse killed. The regiment of chasseurs and the four regiments of grenadiers —one of them probably the half-drowned forlorn hope—composing the brigade commanded by Colonel Donop, sustained a loss of four rank and file, killed; Captain De Westerhagen, Lieutenant De Rau, and fourteen rank and file, wounded; and two rank and file, missing.

It would appear as convincing that the delaying of the enemy on the plain was the salvation of the American army, within the lines; since it afforded time for strengthening the works behind which the latter was then posted, and for preparing it for falling back soon afterwards and occupying another position, which would be more easily defended and not so accessible to the king's troops. But it is scarcely true that following the morning of the preceding day the Americans had "drawn back their encampment" and "strengthened their lines by additional works" to such an extent in either instance that "the designed attack upon them" on the morning after the engagement need have been "deferred," for no other reason than these, notwithstanding General Howe is reported to have informed his home government that such had been the case—the reported withdrawal of the American encampment was

probably nothing more than the removal of the stores back to the high grounds of New Castle, which was commenced in that day; and, notwithstanding the interval had been undoubtedly occupied by the Americans in industriously strengthening their position, they could scarcely have made defensible and formidable what, only a few hours previous, had been hardly respectable. Indeed in no time, under the most favorable circumstances, were the defences of the American lines, immediately above the plains, in any respect formidable; and the centre, where the Post Road passed through them, was decidedly the weakest portion. They had been hastily constructed without the superintendence of experienced engineers. The stony soil prevented the ditch from being made of any troublesome depth or the parapet of a troublesome height; the latter was not fraised; only where it was least needed —probably because the construction of it elsewhere had been interfered with—was there the slightest appearance of an abbatis. There was little foundation therefore for General Howe's transparent excuses; and it would have been more creditable to his candor had he told the true reason for his failure to assault the lines on the morning after the battle and while the troops, who had been designated to make the assault with their line unbroken, were resting on their arms within a mile and in open sight from the works which they were expecting to assault, and ready to move against them, at a moment's notice. The fact was simply this, as we have already seen, "the army could no longer expediently attempt anything against the enemy's (mean the American) main body;" and it was necessary that it should be reinforced, before the Americans should be attacked.

After having been strengthened by the addition of six fresh and effective regiments to his already powerful command, Howe, the British general, decided to attack the American lines on October 31st; and for that purpose all necessary preparations were duly made; but the preceding night and the morning of that day were very rainy; and the proposed movement was necessarily postponed. On the same day the Americans remained within their works, quietly preparing for the abandonment of them and carefully watching every movement of the enemy. Conceiving that one of Howe's objects would be to turn the flank of the lines, to seize the bridge over the Croton River, and thereby to cut off the communication of the army with the upper country, General Washington detached General Rezin Beall with three fine regiments of Marylanders to occupy that very important pass; and General Lord Stirling was ordered, with the brigade which he commanded, "to keep pace with the enemy's left flank and to push up also to Croton-river, should he plainly perceive that the enemy's route lays that way." At the same time the army was being rapidly diminished by the desertions of the

militia, to say nothing of stragglers. Those who remained at their post were evidently diligently employed in preparing to move to a new position—an operation in which the great scarcity of teams added very greatly to the personal labor of the men—and during the following night, that of Thursday, October 31st, the entire line of the army, taking the extreme left of the line for the pivot, swung back from the lines which it had constructed with so much labor on the high grounds above the plains, until its rear rested on the more advantageous high grounds of North Castle, within a mile from the position which it had abandoned, and authoritatively described as "grounds which were strong and advantageous, and such as they (the British) could not have gained without much loss of blood, in case an attempt had been made."

A fairly large force was left in possession of the lines which had been vacated, and during the night it set fire to several barns and one house which contained forage; and some provisions which for the want of teams could not be removed were also destroyed. On the morning after the withdrawal of the main body of the American army from its lines at the head of the White Plains General Howe gave orders for the occupation of those lines by the British; but again a violent rain interposed, and the project was abandoned. At a later hour, however, the Hessian Grenadiers were moved from Chatterton's Hill, and occupied those lines, very possibly as the beginning of a movement against the new position of the American army, which after a due examination of its strength, was conducted no further. On the morning of Friday, November 1st, simultaneously with the movement of the Hessian Grenadiers and with other equally important preparations, the whole, it would appear, preliminary to an assault on the new position of the American army on the high grounds of Northcastle, a heavy body from the right of the British army, with a number of field pieces, was moved against the extreme left of the American lines, where the division commanded by General Heath was posted, and opened a heavy fire, which was returned by Captain-Lieutenant Bryant and Lieutenant Jackson of the American artillery, neither party sustaining any loss which was particularly worthy of record. A violent rain, however, again interposed, and the project, whatever it may have been, was abandoned.

Thus foiled in his endeavors to cut off the communications of the American army with the upper country as well as with New England and to draw General Washington to give him battle in a general engagement, in other words, having been completely out-generaled by the commander-in-chief of the forces whom his associates in arms had so contemptuously ridiculed—General Howe determined to abandon the attempt and to withdraw his powerful command from Westchester County in search for laurels on other and more inviting fields. The

two armies continued in their respective lines, not more than a long cannon shot from each other, until the following Saturday night, when the American sentries heard what they supposed to have been a rumbling sound of moving artillery. On Monday night, November 4th, however, the entire encampment of the enemy was broken up, and on the following morning he made a sudden and unexpected movement from all the posts in front of the American lines which he had previously taken. As early as the preceding Monday, evidently preparatory to this movement, General Knyphausen, who had been left at New Rochelle with the second division of the German troops, to keep open the communication between the army and the fleet, had been ordered to leave the regiment of Waldeckers, who formed a portion of his command, at that place, and to move with the remainder of the division, six fresh battalions of Hessians, towards Kingsbridge; and on Saturday, November 2nd, he had occupied a position on Manhattan Island, near that place. On Sunday, November 3rd, the entire army had been ordered to provide itself with forage, for three days' consumption. On the following day Major-General Grant, with the fourth brigade of British troops, had been moved down to Mile Square and Valentine's Hill; General Agnew, with the sixth brigade of British troops, the same that had been moved to Mamaroneck, on the morning after the Queen's Rangers had been so roughly handled by Colonel Haslet and his command, had been moved from that place to a bridge over the Bronx River, near De Lancey's Mill, in the town of Westchester; and the Waldeckers, whom General Knyphausen had left at New Rochelle on the preceding Monday, were moved to another bridge, also over the Bronx River, three miles above the other, then and later known as William's Bridge, and every other necessary preparation for an orderly and undisturbed retreat had, in the meanwhile, been taken.

Pillaging Lower Westchester County—At the time that Washington and the main body of the American army were thus falling back from their position at North Castle, the British commander, Howe, and the main body of the invading army continued to fall back and approach Kingsbridge. On Sunday, November 10th, a brigade of Hessians was moved to that place to increase the strength of General Knyphausen's already strong division; and two days afterwards, the main body of the British army broke up the encampment at Dobbs Ferry, which it had occupied from the preceding Wednesday, and in two columns moved towards Kingsbridge. It rested on November 13th on the heights of Fordham and formed a line with the right upon the road leading to the borough town of Westchester, and covered by the Bronx River and with the left on the Hudson River, where it remained, until preparations

for the assault on Fort Washington, which had been reasonably determined on, had been completed. The progress of the enemy through Westchester County was marked by many outrages. The victims included both men and women, old and young, the children and the aged and infirm, as well as those who were disposed to favor the British. As General Washington put it, while forewarning the Governor of New Jersey of what the fate of that people would be, "they have treated all, here, without discrimination; the distinction of Whig and Tory has been lost in one general scene of ravage and desolation." The British and the Hessians earned equal infamy in the work of pillage and murder; and what of property the soldiers spared was frequently carried away by the soldiers' wives and mistresses, who formed a part of the retinue of the army. Indeed the cumulation of outrages called out from one of the most prominent of the anti-American element the following graphic depiction of the work of ravage:

> The inhuman treatment alluded to was the indiscriminate plunder suffered to be committed, by the soldiery under his command, on Staten Island, Long Island, the White Plains, and in the Province of New Jersey, where friend and foe, loyalist and rebel, met with the same fate—a series of continued plunder, which was a disgrace to an Army pretending to discipline, and which, while it tended to relax the discipline of the troops, could not fail to create the greatest aversion, even in the breast of loyalty itself, to a service which, under the fair pretence of giving them protection, robbed them, in many instances, even of the necessaries of life.

The hardships inflicted on the inhabitants of Westchester County were not confined to those produced by the royal British army and its followers. Soldiers and officers in the American army were also involved in depredations. General Washington was constrained to add to his previous General Orders another denunciation illustrative of the practice and of his views concerning them: His language was vigorous:

> It is with astonishment the General hears that some Officers have taken Horses, between the enemy's Camp and ours, and sent them into the country, for their private use. Can it be possible that persons bearing Commissions and fighting in such a cause, can degrade themselves into plunderers of Horses? He hopes every Officer will set his face against it, in future; and does insist that the Colonels and commanding Officers of Regiments immediately inquire into the matter, and report to him who have been guilty of these practices; and that they take an account of the Horses in their respective encampments; and send to the Quartermaster-general all that are not in some public service.

While some of the officers of the American army were thus employed in replenishing their own stables, at their respective homes, from the stables of the farmers in the valley of The Bronx, others of the army, officers and private soldiers, were systematically visiting the houses of the farmers of the district and robbing them of things greatly valued by them. Like the British and Hessians they were respecters neither

of the friends of the American cause nor of the friends of the enemy; as Scharf, historian of Westchester County, puts it:

Nor did they hesitate to rob helpless and unprotected females and their families; sometimes turning them out of their houses, undressed and in their night-clothes; and generally adding personal abuse to their victims to the crime of robbing them. Nothing whatever was unacceptable to the thieves; and the bags of Feathers and of unmanufactured Wool, the desks and Tea-tables and Chairs, the Book-cases and Books, the Andirons and brass and copper Kettles, the linen Curtains and Looking-glasses and women's Hats, the Churns and Washtubs, the sets of Sleigh-harness and skips of Bees, which appear recorded among the articles which were thus stolen by the soldiers whom Massachusetts and Connecticut had sent into the Army, very clearly indicated that while the Horses of the farmers of Westchester County were stolen for the supplying of the stables of the thieves, at their respective homes, the Household Furniture belonging to the same farmers, and the Clothing of their wives, and their unmanufactured Wool and Feathers, and their Bees, were also stolen for the purpose of enriching the homes and work-rooms and the gardens of those same "Christian" New Englanders, and the wardrobes of their families. Among those who were thus robbed were Miles Oakley, who was the landlord of the Tavern, contiguous to the Court-house, in the Village of White Plains; John Martine, the grandfather of the late Caleb Martine of Greenburgh, and the widow of the late Thomas Dean of Tarrytown, whose homestead is now occupied by Isaac F. Van Wart, of Greenburgh; Talman Pugsley, who is said to have lived where the brick School-house now stands, opposite to the residence of Abraham Beare, of Greenburgh; Phoebe Oakley, who was the sister-in-law of Talman Pugsley; Marmaduke Foster, who was the son-in-law of John Martine; and Solomon Pugsley and the widow Elizabeth Pugsley, whose places of residence are not known to us; and their Depositions and Statements and the Schedules of the articles stolen from John Martine and his son-in-law, afford at once the evidence of the robberies and the comforts which were to be found in the homes of the quiet and industrious and intelligent residents of Westchester-county, at that time. Among the thieves whose names have come down to us, were Major Bacon, Captains Gale, Shaddóck, and Ford, and others, of Colonel Brewer's Regiment of Artificers, of the Massachusetts Line; and Officers and Privates of the Regiment of Connecticut troops, commanded by Colonel Charles Webb.

In view of these offenses and of others concerning which no records have been preserved the Committee of Safety for the State addressed a letter to the President of the Continental Congress, which concludes with these words: "I have the satisfaction to assure you that the fortitude of this State and their zeal for the glorious cause in which we are engaged is not abated; on the contrary, we are prepared to meet even severer misfortunes with a spirit and firmness becoming the generous advocates of Liberty. Unhappily am I to add that amidst all our suffering the Army employed for the protection of America have not refrained from embittering even the calamities of War. At a time when the utmost resources of this State were laid open to their wants, and the members of Convention personally submitted to the labour and fatigue which were necessary, on a sudden emergency, and after frequent

losses of Provisions and Barracks, to supply two numerous Armies, augumented by the Militia, with every article which they required, the Court-house and the remains of the Village, at the White Plains, which had been spared on the retreat of our forces, was, after the enemy had, in their turn, retired, wantonly destroyed, without the Orders and to the infinite regret of our worthy General. Besides, in spite of all his Excellency's efforts, wherever our troops have marched or been stationed, they have done infinite damage to the possessions and farms, and have pilfered the property of the people.

"I am directed, Sir, to submit it to the honorable Congress whether some effectual remedy ought not to be provided against such disorderly and disgraceful proceedings. The soldier who plunders the country he is employed to protect, is no better than a robber, and ought to be treated accordingly; and a severe example ought, in the opinion of the Committee, to be made of the officer who, without necessity or his General's permission, set fire to the Court-house and other buildings, at the White Plains. He is guilty of the crime of Arson; and if he cannot be punished by the Articles of War, he ought to be given up to the Laws of the land. If so glaring a violation of every sentiment of humanity should be passed over, in silence, if the Army is not seasonably restrained from such acts of barbarity, the consequence must be fatal to the cause of a people whose exalted glory it is to be advocates for the Rights of Mankind against the tyranny and oppression of lawless power."

The line of conduct taken by the American commander in the trying events of that memorable campaign in the valley of the Bronx has received the approbation of his country and of a good part of the outside world, and secured for him high honor as a soldier and commanding general. The conduct of General Howe, the British commander, has received no more than the approbation of the English king, his step-brother, and of the part of the Opposition in the English Parliament, of which he was a member. The commanders of the British forces, both of the army and the fleet, were arraigned both in the British press and in the House of Commons and the House of Lords, for what was described as their want of judgment in the elaboration of their plans and with lack of energy and vigor in their execution. "A connection with the Opposition, and a resolution, assumed before their departure from England, to frustrate every measure of the present Administration and thereby to bring them into disgrace with their Sovereign and the Nation," were also boldly charged on the two brothers; while others "shrewdly suspected that their poverty, not their will, consented"—they said that it was "obvious to all, that, had the Admiral destroyed the rebel ships in their ports or effectually blockaded up their harbors no

valuable captures of Tobacco or Indigo could have fallen to the share of the British Admiral"; and they did not hesitate to assert that large fortunes were accumulated from that source. They also took advantage of the friendship which had existed between the family of Howe and the Americans during the French war and they boldly charged the brothers with positive friendship for the American cause. A good many of the charges had a more or less sound basis. The Howe brothers were both lazy and pleasure-loving; they were fond of company, wine and play; they were known to have kept a sharp eye on the spoils. But there were other circumstances of which their accusers knew very little and of which later generations have not learned much. When the Committee of the House of the House of Commons was charged with the duty of inquiring into the conduct of General Howe during his command of the king's troops in North America, that officer made a written defense, in which we find the following words relative to the operations of the royal army in the valley of The Bronx.

From the twelfth of October, the day the Army landed on Frog's-neck, to the twenty-first of the same month, we were employed in getting up Stores and Provisions; and in bringing over the Dragoons, the Second Division of Hessians, and the carriages and horses for transporting Provisions, Artillery, Ammunition, and Baggage. Four or five days had been unavoidably taken up in landing at Frog's-neck, instead of going, at once, to Pell's-point, which would have been an imprudent measure, as it could not have been executed without much unnecessary risk. On the twenty-eighth of October, the engagement at the White Plains took place. But it has been asserted, that, by my not attacking the lines, on the day of that action, I lost an opportunity of destroying the Rebel Army; and it has been also said, that I might have cut off the enemy's retreat by the Croton-bridge. Sir: an assault upon the enemy's right, which was opposed to the Hessian troops, was intended. The Committee must give me credit when I assure them, that I have political reasons, and no other, for declining to explain why that assault was not made. Upon a minute inquiry those reasons might, if necessary, be brought out, in evidence at the Bar. If, however, the assault had been made, and lines carried, the enemy would have got off, without much loss; and no way had we, that I could ever learn, of cutting off their retreat by the Croton-bridge. I cannot conceive the foundation of such an idea. By forcing the lines, we should, undoubtedly, have gained a more brilliant advantage, some Baggage, and some Provisions; but we had no reason to suppose that the Rebel Army could have been destroyed. The ground in their rear was such as they could wish, for securing their retreat, which, indeed, seemed to be their particular object. And, Sir, I do not hesitate to confess that, if I could, by any manoeuvre, remove an enemy from a very advantageous position, without hazarding the consequences of an attack, where the point to be carried was not adequate to the loss of men to be expected from the enterprise, I should certainly adopt that cautionary conduct, in the hopes of meeting my adversary upon more equal terms.

Cowboys and Skinners in No Man's Land—At the time of the British occupation of New York City, what was known as the neutral territory of Westchester County, called also No Man's Land, referring to a

portion of the county stretching from the New York City line to the Croton River, was continually exposed to British and American raids, writes Ralph Burrell. "The raiding forces east of the Hudson, between the American and British lines, were infested with bands of robbers and outlaws, not regularly attached to either army. These ruffians, under the pretext of keeping up a partisan warfare subjected the inhabitants of this territory to numerous raids and forages. There were two sets of these outlaws, the Cowboys or cattle thieves and the Skinners. These terms were used to refer to their political connections rather than to their practices, for in this respect they were the same. The former marauded under the British banner, the latter were Americans. But as a matter of fact both parties were enemies to any farmer or lonely traveller whose unprotected situation offered a prospect of booty." Washington Irving describes these parties as follows: "This debatable territory was overrun by predatory bands of outlaws from either side, sacking hen roosts, plundering farmhouses, and driving off cattle. Hence arose those two great orders of border chivalry, the 'Skinners' and the 'Cowboys.' The former marauded under the British, the latter under the American banner; but both in their hurry of military ardor were apt to err on the safe side and rob friend as well as foe. Neither of them stopped to ask the politics of the horse or cow they drove into captivity or to trouble their heads, when they wrung the neck of some rooster, to ascertain whether he had crowed for Congress or King George." It is a fact, however, that several of the most important and most formidable raids were made outside of the Neutral Grounds proper. Important among them was the attack made by the Cowboys or Tories on the American post at Yorktown and Compound in 1789. In fact these two villages were continually exposed. But American raids were not lacking. Daring assaults were made on the British lines as far south as Kingsbridge. The command of the American armies on the outskirts of the Neutral Ground was given to officers of approved courage and enterprise. Colonel Aaron Burr distinguished himself here by the discipline and efficiency he maintained. Because of the lack of forces it was necessary to know the political opinions of the inhabitants. General William Hull, who later surrendered Detroit without a battle, here proved himself a different man. General Hull had selected a number of families on whose loyalty he could rely and formed a line of them from Kingsbridge to his most advanced lines, so that he could communicate his plans or secure reliable information of British movements. He requested the people on learning valuable information to take a pitcher or jug and go to his neighbor for cider. His neighbor on learning the information repeated the trick until the news reached Hull. Thus he could offset Tory raids and guarantee

the Americans some protection. Awful conditions prevailed in the Neutral Ground. The houses were scenes of desolation. The cattle were gone. The fields were covered with weeds. Everything was at a standstill. But these parties did not stop at theft. They seemed to enjoy the sight of suffering. Often they left their victims from whom they plundered everything, stretched upon barn doors by their arms or thumbs. But as already stated the military force was too small to provide safety."

The effect of these raids upon the population was in a way tragic, the same writer goes on to say. The people ever retired at night with the fear that before morning they might be murdered or their homes set on fire. "The people became morose and melancholy. They feared all strangers and were suspicious of their neighbors. When questioned they tried to be polite or at least civil, but they made no effort to continue the conversation. Travelling at that time was rare also because of fear of being kidnapped by one of the parties. The roads were deserted except for some lonely scouting party. These raids were looked on with approval by the British side, and by the American authorities at least without disapproval. But these organizations, although outlaws, served their country to a great degree. For the Skinners played an important part in the capture of Major André, the British spy. The early part of the conspiracy, Arnold's betrayal, etc., has no relation to the Neutral Ground, but his capture did. As André and Smith, his companion, journeyed through Yorktown, a small village in the northern part of Westchester County, they heard rumors that the Cowboys were out in force. Although they professed to be Tories, André's companion, a local man, knowing their practices, was afraid to continue his journey. André, therefore, was obliged to spend the night at a small farm house, now known locally as the Bryant Farm. They rose before dawn and journeyed until they reached the Croton River, which marked the upper boundary of the Neutral Ground. Arnold had given Smith instructions that in adapting a land route, he should not leave André until they reached White Plains, but he was uneasy and wished to return. He therefore told André that they were in a neutral territory and that André would be safe. Whether Smith had said this intentionally or really believed it, is not known. André, however, thinking himself safe consented to the return and continued his journey alone. André left to himself struck into the road leading to Tarrytown, hoping to meet no worse enemies than the Cowboys, who would respect his uniform or if they were bent on plunder, would be satisfied with his watch and money. That morning, however, a party of seven Skinners had come out to intercept some Cowboys, who were expected up the road. About nine o'clock as André was approaching the creek above

Sleepy Hollow he was suddenly confronted by three of this party. André, being a stranger, was stopped. One of the men happened to be wearing a Hessian coat and André, noting this, thought they must be Cowboys. He expressed a hope that they were Cowboys and being answered that this was the case he declared himself a British officer on an important mission. To his great dismay he now realized his mistake. André showed them a pass signed by Arnold, but they searched him, finding six papers hidden in his stocking. 'By God he is a spy,' said Paulding, the one who wore the Hessian coat. André then tried to buy his freedom, but the men were not to be bought. They sent their prisoner to Colonel Jamieson who was in command of the nearest post. This was at North Castle. Jamieson sent the prisoner to Arnold himself, together with a brief note explaining the case. On re-examining the letters and other papers found on André, he became suspicious and sending a cavalry troop to overtake him, he determined to keep André at his own post. But he allowed the note to be delivered and Arnold immedately escaped to the British. Congress recognized the services of these three Skinners by granting each a pension and in addition three confiscated farms. The Neutral Ground is well represented in literature. Cooper's 'Spy' is, as the title states, a story of the Neutral Ground. Cooper's hero, 'Harvey Birch,' was a real personage whose name was Enoch Crosby, a respected citizen of Westchester County who died at Golden's Bridge in 1835. Cooper obtained the facts of Crosby's career from John Jay, to whom Crosby had privately related them. But there were other spies of the Neutral Ground unknown to fame as was Crosby, whose services were fully as valuable and equally conspicuous. An interesting story is told of one of them, an Elisha Holmes, who was a firm friend of General Washington. On one occasion Holmes sent certain information to Major Tallmage, who was in command of a post at Bedford. Holmes signed his message 'E. H.' The major recognized neither handwriting nor initials, and sent it to Washington. General Washington wrote back: 'Believe all E. H. tells you.'

"One of the most important events of the Revolutionary War was the treason of Benedict Arnold, his interview with Major André, and André's attempted return on horseback from near Verplanck's Point to the city of New York. He had gone through Cortlandt Manor, a part of North Castle, now New Castle, and it was while journeying through Philipsburgh, now Mount Pleasant, that he was stopped and taken to the nearest military post, then at North Castle, and to North Salem and finally to Tappan on the west side of the Hudson, where he was hanged as a spy. The road the spy took through New Castle still remains unaltered."

A recent newspaper comment brings back to us some of the atmosphere of the time in which André went to his doom: "The streets, the subways, the drawing-rooms of New York buzz today with a thousand and one topics of conversation—but one hundred and forty-three years ago today there was but one conversational hum. On that day Major André was hanged as a spy on the west shore of the Hudson, almost within sight of the city. New York went into mourning when the news of the execution became known, for New York at that time was in the hands of the British army and its officers felt the loss of the affable officer keenly. And even those whose warm sympathies were against the British spoke with admiration of the brave manner in which the sentenced spy had died. To this day the name of Benedict Arnold, to whom Major André's death was due, is synonymous with treason, although his later biographers are more lenient with him and plead extenuating circumstances, while that of Major André still excites universal commiseration. André had many friends in New York. He was a vivacious officer, strikingly handsome and popular in every circle in which he appeared. Indeed, it was his social acquaintance which brought him into the Benedict Arnold affair. He had known Arnold's wife at Philadelphia, and it was he who was selected to open negotiations for the surrender of West Point. Arnold brought these negotiations to a point where a personal contact was necessary. He was selected to make his way through the American lines to meet the American general. He did so as 'John Anderson,' reached Arnold safely, but on his way back to New York to report to General Clinton, was captured by three American militiamen. They turned him over to the authorities. Arnold, through a blunder was notified that documents in his own handwriting and incriminating him, had been found in André's boot-toe and escaped. General Washington ordered trial by military court, and André was sentenced to be hanged. He pleaded to be allowed to die as a soldier, but on October 2, 1780, gallows were erected at Tappan, and he swung to his death. After the incident there was general sorrow over the outcome. In England, of course, Major André became one of the war's outstanding heroes, and in 1821 a monument was erected to him in Westminster Abbey and his remains were disinterred and removed there." An André monument at Tappan was erected by Cyrus W. Field and unveiled on October 2, 1879, the anniversary of André's death. However, the action was strongly adverse to public sentiment and the monument was frequently mutilated and finally destroyed by dynamite.

Affair of Young's House—A recent newspaper issue had the following article bearing on the campaign in the valley of The Bronx; "William Taylor, on whose farm were found the skeletons of five Revolutionary

soldiers has turned the remains over to Mrs. Jeremiah T. Lockwood, representing the White Plains Chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution. He has also promised to give the Chapter any relics found in the vicinity of his farm. The finding of the skeletons has aroused great interest through this entire section and many persons have called at the Taylor farmhouse to view them. The find is regarded as of great historical value. Historical Society representatives and scientists have examined the bones and have decided that they are skeletons of white men. This establishes definitely that they are the bones of Revolutionary or British soldiers. Mrs. Lockwood has prepared the following account of the engagement in which it is believed the five men met their deaths:

" 'The affair at Young's House was the principal event of the Revolutionary War in Westchester County during the winter of 1779-80. This house, owned by Joseph Young, was about four miles east of Tarrytown and about the same from White Plains. The locality was known as 'The Four Corners,' also as the 'Lower Cross Road.' After the house was burned down by the British the place was known as the 'Burnt House.' When the war was over the farm was bought by Isaac Van Wart, one of the captors of Major John André, who built upon it the well known Van Wart house. The 'Young's House,' located near an important cross-roads on elevated ground and within the American lines, was a convenient stopping place for the Continental troops from August, 1776, to February, 1780. Lieutenant-Colonel Thompson, commanding two hundred and fifty men, had orders January, 1780, to move between Croton River and White Plains, Hudson River and Bedford, that the enemy might not form plans for an attack. For some reason the troops remained at Young's House longer than usual. The Tories in the neighborhood quickly informed the British headquarters in New York and on the night of February 2, 1780, a force of between four and five hundred infantry and one hundred horsemen, composed of British, German, and Colonel De Lancey's Tories, set out from Fort Washington to attack the American troops. Deep snow covered the ground and they did not reach the vicinity of Young's House until nearly nine o'clock on Thursday morning, February 3rd. The enemy closed up on all sides. Thompson's men taken by surprise made a brave resistance, however, but were overpowered by a superior number. Less than one hundred and fifty of the Continentals were at the Young's House to meet the attack, a considerable portion of the two hundred and fifty men being posted along the lines extending nearly two miles toward the Hudson and about three miles towards the Bronx, too far away to engage in the conflict. That this small number of men dared

to resist nearly six hundred disciplined troops and hold them in check for any length of time showed great courage.

"Lieutenant-Colonel Thompson and six other officers with eight rank and file men were made prisoners. After burning the Young's House and buildings the enemy returned to New York. Of the Americans thirteen were killed on the spot and Captain Roberts, mortally wounded, lived but a few minutes. Seventeen other men were wounded, several of whom died. The British admitted five killed and eighteen wounded. The American and British dead were buried together north of the Corners!

"The Rev. Alexander Van Wart, in 1885, when describing the sandy field on the east side of the Unionville Road, as the place where the Americans and British who fell in the fight at Young's House were buried, said: 'I have ploughed many a furrow over their graves.' James Fenimore Cooper in his novel 'The Spy,' a story of the Revolutionary War, located at the 'Four Corners,' the hotel of Betsy Flannigan, the inventor of the beverage known as the 'Cocktail.' A duel was fought between General Gates and Colonel Wilkins, September, 1778. It took place near a blacksmith shop east of the 'Four Corners.' Two shots were exchanged without bloodshed and a reconciliation took place. In 1912 the Westchester County Board of Supervisors voted to give the White Plains Chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution the stones from the old courthouse in White Plains, then being demolished to make room for the new building. These stones were in part to be used for making the 'fort' and base for a memorial cannon to be constructed and placed on Chatterton Hill, where the battle of White Plains was fought at the time of the Revolution. The cannon was unveiled October 28, 1912."

Revolutionary Incidents—There was stationed in Bronx valley also, until Lord Cornwallis began his southern campaign, a body of dragoons or light horse, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Banastre Tarleton, a name well hated even by the average school child of today, from his sobriquet of "Bloody" Tarleton. The other commands were usually composed of German mercenaries, whose willingness to come to America had been increased by the promise held out to them by the British authorities that they could add to their pay by plundering the inhabitants; which they proceeded to do with strict impartiality to loyalist and patriotic alike. The popular notion is that they could do nothing else but plunder; but one has only to visit Chatterton's Hill at White Plains, where they led the "forlorn hope," or the steep sides of Fort Tryon at Inwood, to learn the fact that they could fight as well as plunder. The German jägers, whom Lossing calls "hired assassins,"

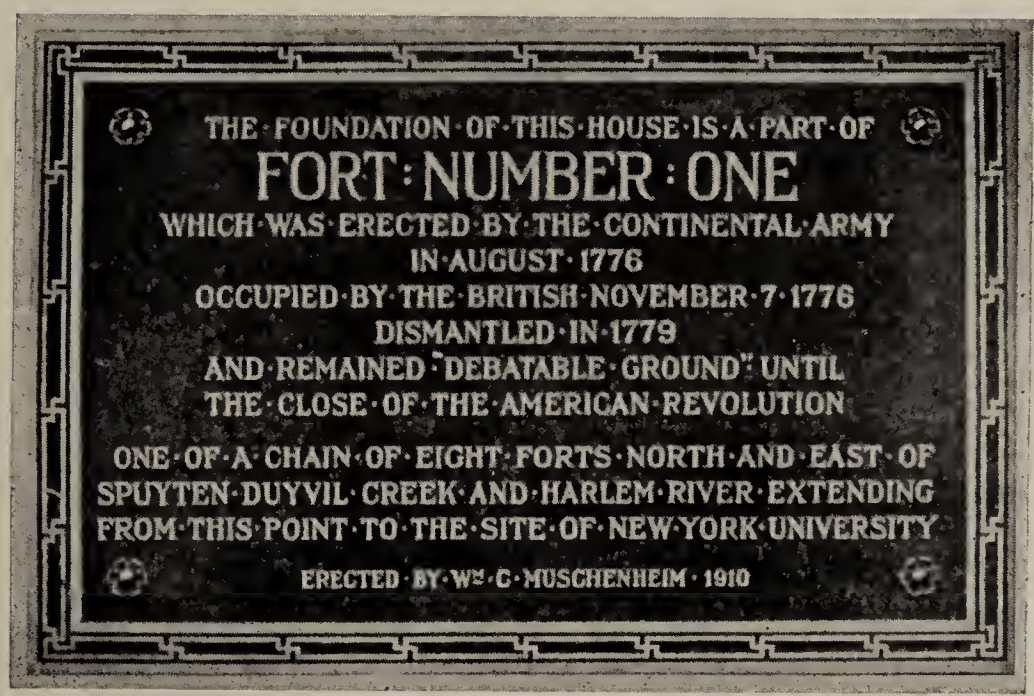
were notorious for their plundering. The remainder of the forces occupying what is now the territory of the borough were British light infantry or squadrons of light horse, and small bands or companies of loyalist refugees, whose commanders were too obscure to merit record. The earliest reoccupation of the borough by British troops was on November 3, 1776, when the British General Grant occupied De Lancey's Mills at West Farms, and the regiment of Waldeckers took possession of the vicinity of Williamsbridge. Howe's headquarters were at De Lancey's Mills during the preparations for the attack on Fort Washington. The posts already mentioned were extended well into the country during the summer, but were withdrawn to the Harlem River and the Sound during the winter, when the soldiers occupied the barracks and huts erected for quarters. For firewood they used the fences, barns, and houses of the neighboring farmers and denuded their land of its standing timber to supply the garrison and people of the city. The farmers, thus deprived of house and home, took refuge within the lines of either side, and taking up the sword, took a merciless revenge when opportunity offered. The section between the lines became a desolate wilderness with abandoned farms, grassgrown roads, and broken down bridges. John Archer's village of Fordham between the two bridges at Kingsbridge disappeared as firewood for the chasseurs of Emmerick, whose camp was located at that spot.

On the bluff to the west of Van Cortlandt Park overlooking the Albany Road was an outpost of light troops, usually composed of both mounted and foot jägers, and detachments of all the German regiments in New York. In 1778 it consisted of five companies of foot and one of mounted jägers under Lieutenant-Colonel Van Wurmb; and in the following year, of jägers and the corps of Lord Rawdon, afterwards noted in the southern campaign for his defeat of Gates at Camden. From this outpost, frequent patrols were made to the vicinity of Yonkers and beyond and towards the Mile Square and Valentine's Hill. At Mile Square, De Lancey kept a recruiting officer at all times. Upon one occasion a band of Americans came near falling into an ambuscade near Williamsbridge; but a young girl saw the movements of both sides and cautioned the Americans by waving to them from an upper window of her house. On these excursions the jägers generally took along a couple of light three-pounder field-pieces called amusettes. These patrolling parties, gathering up recruits, cattle, hay, and what not, as well as looking out for an enemy, did not always come and go unmolested; for Sheldon's dragoons, Major Harry Lee, or the fiery and impetuous Frenchman, De Armond, with his corps of compatriots, were often lying in wait for the British; and as the Valentines, Corsas, Hadleys, and other families of the neighborhood were patriots, timely

notice of the British movements was sent to the American commanders on the lines, while the informants, acting as guides, led them to convenient spots where the marauders could be intercepted. Andrew Corsa and the Dyckmans became famous as Westchester guides; nor ought there to be forgotten Enoch Crosby, the "Harvey Birch" of Cooper's "The Spy," whose favorite route between the lines was by way of the Mill Brook valley at Morrisania.

In the summer of 1777 Lord Cathcart commanded in the neighborhood of Kingsbridge, with Emmerick's Chasseurs, the Queen's Rangers, and the partisan bands of Hovenden, James, and Sandford. De Lancey's headquarters were at the manor-house at Morrisania. He was a special object of interest to the Americans, and many attempts were made by them to capture him; but he was always too wary or too fortunate for his enemies, and he always escaped them. Upon one occasion in 1777 he rode to West Farms to visit his aged mother. His thoroughbred stallion was tied to a fence, where it was seen by some American scouts, who recognized its value and stole it. The horse was taken to White Plains and sold to an enterprising Yankee from Connecticut, who used him for breeding purposes and thus began the famous line of Morgan horses. On January 25, 1777, some Americans attacked the blockhouse erected by De Lancey at West Farms; but the attempt was unsuccessful, for though some of the Tories were wounded, none were killed or captured. Earlier in the same month Washington, believing the post at New York to be weak on account of the main British army being in New Jersey and many detached for duty in Rhode Island, directed Heath to approach Kingsbridge, and if circumstances promised success, to attack the fortifications there. It was hoped that, even if the fort could not be taken, the movement would oblige the British to detach large bodies of men from New Jersey or Rhode Island for the reinforcement of New York, thus threatened by attack. In accordance with these instructions Heath began a concerted movement in force against Fort Independence. General Lincoln advanced by the Albany Post Road to the heights above Van Cortlandt Park; General Scott came from Scarsdale to the vicinity of the Valentine house on the Boston Road, between Williamsbridge and Kingsbridge, and Generals Wooster and Parsons marched from New Rochelle over the Boston Road to the same neighborhood. The three divisions arrived at the enemy's outposts just before sunrise. Lincoln captured the outpost in his front at "Upper Cortlandt's." Heath ordered the cannonade of the Valentine house, if the guard there resisted, and sent two hundred and fifty men into the valley between the house and the fort to cut off the guard in case they tried to retreat to the fort. Two mounted British pickets came unexpectedly upon the head of Wooster's

OLD CITY ISLAND BRIDGE



BRONZE TABLET, FORT NUMBER ONE

column at the Gunn Hill Road near Williamsbridge, and fled to give the alarm. One was dismounted by a shot from a field-piece and captured; but the other escaped, shouting: "The rebels!", and alarming all the British outposts and pickets, who at once dropped everything and ran for the fort. The garrisons of Valentine's and the Negro Fort fled toward Fort Independence and were fired upon by the pursuing Americans, and one of them was taken prisoner.

Heath then advanced upon the fort and demanded its surrender, which was refused. The garrison consisted of a body of Hessians and the Queen's Rangers. Two field-pieces were then sent to a hill south of the fort not far from Farmers' Bridge and they began a cannonade upon a battalion of Hessians on the other side of the Harlem, near Hyatt's tavern. In order to get a better shot at the Hessians one of the pieces was lowered down the side of the hill to the water's edge; when, to the surprise of the Americans, the redoubt near the bridge opened fire on them from cannon which they did not suspect were there; and they were compelled to scramble up the hill, dragging their gun behind them, to the lively accompaniment of cannon-balls from the British redoubt. Heath remarks: "This success at the outposts flew through the country and was soon magnified into a reduction of the fort, and capture of the garrison." Washington so reported it to Congress before receiving the official report, and there was disappointment when the actual facts were made known.

While the ultimate object was not to besiege Fort Independence everything was done by the Americans to make the enemy believe that the attack was a serious one, with the hope of drawing him out of his strongholds. A detachment was sent down to Morrisania to light a large number of fires, and a number of flat boats were sent to the same place with the intention of making him believe that a strong force was gathering for a descent upon York's Island. This so alarmed the guard at Montressor's or Randall's Island, that they fired the buildings and fled to New York; and it is stated that a brigade was sent to reinforce Fort Washington, and orders sent to Rhode Island for a detachment from that place. On the twenty-ninth there was every appearance of a heavy snowstorm, and the generals having unanimously agreed that it was impracticable to assault the fort with militia, the troops were ordered to withdraw and this time in earnest. A good deal of forage was carried off and the divisions returned in a heavy fall of snow to their former positions at Dobbs Ferry, New Rochelle, and White Plains. The whole force, with the exception of a few artillerymen, consisted of militia. It was one of the few times during the war when they showed themselves capable and reliable; and this too for ten days in the midst of winter. Later the storm cleared up and a fleet of twenty ves-

sels from the eastward came to anchor between Hart and City islands, probably with British troops on board, from Rhode Island. Afterwards the Americans established a cordon of troops from Dobbs Ferry to Mamaroneck on the Sound to prevent raids from below; and early in February an ineffective raid was made by Colonel Enos with a strong detachment against Fort Independence with the hope of surprising the enemy's outposts, but the enemy was too watchful. Two days later, the inhabitants of the borough were subjected to a grand forage on the part of the patriots.

In the spring of 1777 the British established the posts already mentioned and engaged in raids upon the upper county. The year was a momentous one, and the attention of the Americans was too busily engaged with Burgoyne, with Clinton's attempts to get control of the Hudson, and with Howe's advance on Philadelphia to pay much heed to the predatory warfare in which they were later forced to engage in the Neutral Ground by the similar actions of the British. During the whole of the years 1777 and 1778, the British were active, and had large bodies of troops at Verplanck's Point in the vicinity of the Highlands; but by August 1st of this latter year they had retired below Kingsbridge, leaving only Emmerick's and Baremore's battalions above the Harlem River. During the greater part of the war the British kept a number of vessels stationed in the Sound as guard and patrol ships. The inhabitants themselves had a number of whaleboats in which they made raids across the Sound upon the Tories of Long Island in retaliation for the grievances they suffered from the crews of those ships. In 1777 the guard vessel stationed off the mouth of Eastchester Creek was the "Schuldam." A whaleboat from Darien, Connecticut, carried their boat across Rodman's Neck one night and took possession of the market-sloop which plied regularly between Eastchester and New York, carrying vegetables and other supplies. From her captain they learned that he was in the habit of supplying the "Schuldam" with chickens, eggs, vegetables, and other farm products; so they concealed themselves in the hold of the sloop and compelled her master to lay her alongside of the guardship. As they approached the "Schuldam" her watch called out: "What sloop is that?" The captain of the whaleboat party answered: " 'The Little Stanton.' " "Take care! take care! you will be afoul of us," shouted the watch. "Never fear!" they yelled back, and then added: "The whaleboats are out on the Sound tonight, and we wish to get under your lee." In another minute the sloop had been run alongside the "Schuldam," and the crew of twelve men clambered aboard and captured her before her crew could be aroused from sleep. The watch was driven below, but the noise of the affray aroused the British on City Island, and they began to fire upon the Americans.

As the "Schuldam" was a much larger vessel than they were accustomed to handle, her captors obliged two of the prisoners, whom they afterwards set at liberty, to navigate her into port. Before reaching Stanford they took six other vessels bound for New York with cargoes of wood. A short time afterwards, another party of whaleboatmen captured the island, but immediately paroled the inhabitants. At a later period it seems that there was a tacit understanding between the British and the Americans, by which the former had possession of the island by day, and the latter by night.

Affair of "Indian Field"—In the latter part of 1778, after the retirement of the British to the shore of the Harlem River, the Americans took the offensive and a body of one hundred horses, selected from the squadron of Sheldon, Moylan, and the militia, with about forty infantry from Glover's regiment, made a raid by way of De Lancey's Mills to Morrisania, where they came in contact with the enemy, who were posted at the manor-house. A sharp skirmish followed, with a loss to the Americans of two killed and two wounded; the British loss was greater, and the Americans returned with a dozen prisoners, as well as stock and other plunder. The enemy tried to return the compliment; but one of their number deserted and gave information to Lieutenant-Colonel White of the intent to surprise him, so that the scheme fell through. A little later, while patrolling out the Mile Square Road, Emmerick and his chasseurs were attacked and compelled to return to their camp at Fordham. The American force consisted of a body of light troops and a body of Stockbridge Indians, all under the command of Colonel Gist. The troops of Gist were posted on each side of the road above the present Woodlawn Heights in two detachments, north of a brook, which still finds its way through the woods from the hill above the Bronx River, while a third party was posted about three hundred yards west of the road; the Indians were between the last party and the road. The positions occupied by these last two were in the northeast corner of the present Van Cortlandt Park, between Mt. Vernon Avenue, the eastern boundary of the park and Jerome Avenue, which runs through it. To the north of Vault Hill in the park was the belt of woods in which the troops were concealed; the heights on which the main party was posted were also wooded and are in the city of Yonkers. Simcoe learned by means of his spies that the Indians were much elated by the victory over Emmerick and supposed that they had driven in his whole force. He took measures to increase this belief further; and sending for De Lancey's battalion and the Legion Dragoons of Tarleton, prepared a plan for the ambush and capture of the whole party of Americans and Indians. This was a combination of the ablest and most dashing partisans of the British army—Simcoe, Tarleton,

Emmerick, and De Lancey. On the morning of August 31st the attacking force advanced out the Mile Square Road and reached Woodlawn Heights about ten o'clock. The rangers and dragoons took post on the right of the road; while Emmerick was ordered forward to take post in Van Cortlandt's woods at the house of Frederick Devoe, about a mile up a lane leading to the westward. By mistake he took post near the house of Daniel Devoe near the entrance to the land and road, and sent a patrol up the road. The intention was for Emmerick to draw the attack of the Americans and Indians and then retreat. The pursuing Americans would thus be led into an ambush of rangers and dragoons and the whole party would be captured or cut off.

Before Simcoe, who was half way up a tree reconnoitering, could stop the movement, he saw a flanking party of Americans approaching, while the Indians who lined the fence on Emmerick's left began a smart fire upon the chasseurs. He therefore pushed up the brook towards Husted's Heights, where Colonels Gist and Stewart were in position, Tarleton meanwhile advancing up the road to Emmerick's assistance. The stone fence bordering the road prevented Tarleton's dragoons from passing and he was obliged to make a circuit to the right in order to regain the road. Simcoe, learning of Tarleton's difficulty, left his rangers with Major Ross and taking his company of grenadiers pushed down the hill from Husted's into Van Cortlandt's woods and reached the left of the Indians without being seen by them, as they were so busily engaged in firing upon Emmerick and Tarleton. With a yell, the Indians discovered their new assailants and fired upon them, wounding Simcoe and four of his grenadiers. Being outflanked and outnumbered the Indians were driven into the open fields south of the lane, where Tarleton and Emmerick got them with their cavalry. The Indians fought gallantly, pulling some of the dragoons from their horses; but the contest was too unequal and they were forced to flee. The horsemen pursued them over the field, through the woods, over Tippett's Brook to the heights to the westward of the Albany Road, where the survivors hid themselves behind rocks and in other places of safety and thus escaped. About forty of the Indians were killed and badly wounded, among the former being the old chief Nimham and his son. The chief called to his people to fly, saying: "I am an old man and can die here." He wounded Simcoe and was killed by Simcoe's orderly. Tarleton led the pursuit, and while striking a fleeing Indian, lost his balance and fell from his horse. Fortunately for him, but unfortunately for the patriots of the Carolinas, the Indian had no bayonet and his gun was discharged, so that Tarleton escaped. During the pursuit, Simcoe and his rangers seized the heights at Husted's and captured an American captain and several of his men; but the main body under Stewart es-

caped. The bodies of the dead Indians were buried in the clearing in Van Cortlandt's woods where they fell; and the place has since been known as "Indian Field".

Early in October Lieutenant Gill of Moylan's dragoons was patrolling in Eastchester, when he discovered a body of cavalry in his rear; he either had to surrender or cut his way through. He chose the latter alternative and forced his way through, when he found a body of infantry behind the horse; these he also charged; but his horse was wounded in the melée and fell, throwing his rider a prisoner into the hands of the enemy. The American party consisted of twenty-four; two were killed and one taken prisoner; the rest escaped. Later in the same month Simcoe, while on a raid near South Amboy, New Jersey, was taken prisoner. "By the capture of Simcoe," says Heath, "the inhabitants were freed of a very enterprising and troublesome officer." He was later exchanged and at once resumed the making of trouble. His career was continued in the South and he was with Cornwallis at the time of the surrender of Yorktown; but he and his rangers, whom the patriots particularly desired to capture, escaped through a technicality in the terms of capitulation, of which Lord Cornwallis naturally took advantage.

Skirmishes in Bronx Village—In November Colonel De Armond proceeded by way of Tarrytown to the vicinity of Morrisania and surprised the house of Alderman William Leggett at Jeffeard's Neck, called also Leggett's or Oak Point, where he captured Major Baremore and five others. The expedition was carried out with secrecy, precaution, and despatch, and the capture of Baremore relieved the inhabitants from the frequent excursions of a troublesome raider. The house in which he was captured had been formerly the Graham mansion; but upon the occupation of this section by the British the family had been dispossessed to make room for the British officers. The last occupant of the house was a British colonel named Fowler, who, upon being detached from duty in this vicinity, invited his neighborhood friends and acquaintances to a farewell dinner. The party had just sat down at the tables, when the house was reported to be on fire. The colonel thereupon ordered the tables, chairs and viands to be removed to the lawn, where the dinner was continued under the trees, while the house burned down without any efforts being made to save it from destruction. That same night the colonel led a marauding expedition towards Eastchester, where a skirmish occurred with the Americans, and he was mortally wounded. In the middle of November Lieutenant Oakley took five prisoners near Morrisania and came near capturing Colonel De Lancey, the active leader of the Westchester Light Horse, who occupied the Archer house, lying under the guns of Fort Number Eight.

Early in December De Armond made another raid toward Morrisania and captured Captain Cruger of Baremore's corps and two other prisoners. Cruger was exchanged later and became lieutenant-colonel of De Lancey's First Battalion of Loyalists, and as such, with a corps of New York loyalists, successfully held the redoubt at Ninety-six, South Carolina, for twenty-seven days against the attack of Greene and Kosciusko. The winter of 1778-79 was a very cold one and the people passed from Long Island to New York on the ice. On February 7, 1779, a party of three hundred horse and a regiment of infantry passed from Long Island to Westchester town. Notwithstanding, predatory operations continued.

Early in 1779 a body of volunteers from the militia regiments at Greenwich, Connecticut, to the number of eighty, under command of Captains Keeler and Lockwood, marched to the house of Colonel Hatfield at Morrisania, near the site of High Bridge, and attacked it about one o'clock in the morning. They first surprised the pickets, killing three and driving the rest into the house, where the whole of the attacked party took to the upper floor and fired from the windows and down the stairs upon those who entered the house. The possibility of capturing the enemy under such circumstances being remote, the house was fired by placing some burning straw in one of the closets in the lower room. This compelled the defenders to jump from the windows to escape the flames and the whole party, consisting of Colonel Hatfield, one captain, one lieutenant, one quartermaster, and eleven privates, was taken prisoner. On the return a number of soldiers, tired out by their night's work and believing there was no danger, straggled behind their companions and were overtaken by a body of horse sent in pursuit, so that several of them were killed or taken prisoners. The same winter of 1778-79 Colonel Aaron Burr made an attack upon the block-house at West Farms in an attempt to destroy it. Provided with hand grenades, combustibles, and short ladders, about forty volunteers approached cautiously at two o'clock in the morning and cast their missiles into the fort through the portholes. Soon the block-house was on fire and the little garrison surrendered without firing a shot; a few escaped. The block-house commanded the crossing of the Bronx River at De Lancey's Mills. Its site was afterwards occupied by Mapes' Temperance Hotel at the northeast corner of East 179th Street and the Boston Road. In the autumn of 1779 the British began an active campaign in the South and troops were withdrawn from New York and its vicinity. In order to contend with the American partisans—Marion, Pickens, Sumter, Lee and the others—similar corps were needed by the British, and so the light horse of Simcoe, Tarleton, and Emmerick, so long the scourges of the Neutral Ground, were withdrawn from the territory of

the borough and sent to Georgia and the Carolinas, where we find them doing active service against Morgan, Greene, and other patriot leaders. In consequence of these withdrawals, about the middle of September, all the redoubts at Spuyten Duyvil and Fordham Heights, including Number Four or Fort Independence, were dismantled and as thoroughly demolished as could be and their stores and garrisons removed to Manhattan Island, where the fortifications were still further increased in strength. The only exception was Fort Number Eight, which was maintained till the end of the war as a base for the operations of De Lancey's corps and to guard the pontoon bridge over the Harlem River, as well as to serve as an alarm post to the garrisons at the northern end of Manhattan Island. The floating bridge over Spuyten Duyvil Creek was also removed. These posts were not occupied again by either party during the war, except during the grand reconnaissance of August, 1781, when Lincoln and De Chastellux took possession of Fort Independence without restoring or rearming it.

In the spring of 1780 Captain Cushing of the Massachusetts Line guided by Michael Dyckman, the famous Westchester guide, surprised De Lancey's battalion near Fort Number Eight and took over forty of them prisoners. On his retreat, Cushing was followed by a large force of jägers and others. This was another occasion when the commanding officer of the Westchester Light Horse was lucky enough to be absent from his command. In a letter of Washington's, dated July 31, 1780, we learn that it was his intention to move rapidly in force upon Kingsbridge with the object of compelling Sir Henry Clinton to abandon his projected attack upon the newly arrived French at Rhode Island, or of striking him in this quarter if his troops had been decreased by eight thousand, the number he was reported to have sent for the attack on Rochambeau. The army was moved across from the west side of the Hudson to Peekskill and the march toward New York taken up; but Clinton, whose departure from Throgg's Neck had been delayed by the non-arrival of sufficient transports for his troops, received intelligence of Washington's movement and so gave up the Rhode Island expedition and returned to New York. This, in turn, obliged Washington to abandon his plan, and the troops were again returned to their cantonments on the west shore of the Hudson. On the twenty-first of September the British force from Harlem to Kingsbridge was reported at fifteen hundred. During December of 1780 rumors reached the Americans that De Lancey was planning a raid into North Castle, above White Plains, and the lines were disposed so as to meet him. The expedition was made on the twenty-ninth and and De Lancey's party of one hundred infantry and fifty horse was turned back and most of their plunder retaken.

During January of 1781 troops were ordered down for an expedition under Lieutenant-Colonel William Hull, for an attempt against De Lancey's post at Morrisania. Hull's force consisted of about three hundred men. He surrounded the loyalists, forced a passage to their camp, destroyed the pontoon bridge, took fifty prisoners, burned the huts and forage, and took a large number of cattle which he drove up to the American lines. He was closely pursued, but his covering party under Lieutenant-Colonel Hazen attacked the pursuers and killed and captured thirty-five more. Hull's loss was twenty-six men in killed, wounded, and missing. The enemy retaliated on February 17 by raiding Bedford, where they burned five houses, plundered and stripped the inhabitants, and returned with eight prisoners, three of whom were lieutenants in the army. On the twentieth six of our guides, reconnoitering towards Kingsbridge, fell in with a similar party of De Lancey's and took five of them prisoners, all wounded. Fort Number Eight continued to be a favorite point of attack, for, on March 5th, three more prisoners were taken near it. Perhaps the hope of taking De Lancey himself, whose quarters had been removed from the manor-house of Morrisania to the protection of Number Eight on account of the frequency of attacks at the former place, may have served to guide the Americans in his neighborhood. In March and April the traitor Arnold was engaged in gathering a large number of flatboats in Spuyten Duyvil Creek for some projected expedition on the part of the British; on April 8th, these were taken down the East River.

In the summer of 1781 Washington advanced in force to the neighborhood of Kingsbridge with the intention of cutting off the various light corps of the British and loyalists who had been harassing the Americans. General Lincoln and the Marquis de Chastellux threw their troops into Fort Independence and the British on Manhattan Island fired on them. Several of the American troops were killed and wounded by the long shots of the jägers, who kept up a popping fire whenever they could reach the Americans. The advance was unsuccessful for the object it had in view; but the British were obliged to withdraw from the mainland. De Lauzun, who commanded the left wing of the French army at Eastchester, with Sheldon's dragoons and the Connecticut militia, was to scour the country toward Throgg's Neck, Westchester, and De Lancey's Mills with the hope of destroying or capturing the loyalist bands in that vicinity. He heard the firing toward Kingsbridge and pushed rapidly to the assistance of Lincoln and De Chastellux. After this attempt the combined armies fell back and took positions well down in the Neutral Ground. On August 6th General Washington and the Count de Rochambeau with their staffs and a strong detachment of cavalry and infantry as a covering party, made a grand reconnaissance

and inspection of the fortifications on Manhattan. The whole combined army was advanced for the purpose, and the two commanders rode from Kingsbridge to Morrisania, to the heights of what is now Franz Sigel Park, making careful inspection through their glasses of the enemy's positions, while their engineers made notes of the redoubts and of the topography. The British opened on the distinguished group and sent shot and shell hurtling among them, which rather upset the equanimity of the guide, Andrew Corsa, who took refuge behind rocks and trees. When he saw, however, that the commanders continued the inspection as coolly and calmly as if no such cannonade was in progress, his courage returned. The conclusion arrived at by the generals was that the enemy was too strongly entrenched for successful attack; while to encompass the British posts on Long Island, Staten Island, and New Jersey and reduce them would take a very much larger force that was at their command. The armies were, therefore, withdrawn to a position in rear of the former one, with the right at Dobbs Ferry and the French left at White Plains, while an advanced post was held at Philipse under Colonel Scammel, another at Valentine's Hill, and a third at Eastchester. It was whispered that the Count de Grasse with a French fleet was to arrive off the capes of the Chesapeake; and the news from Lafayette, in regard to the movements of Cornwallis in Yorktown, indicated where the blow should fall. On August 19th the march for Yorktown began and in order to deceive the enemy and to make him believe that the army was still present in force, extensive camp-fires were kept burning for several nights on Vault Hill in the present Van Cortlandt Park.

In spite of the presence of the American army in force, De Lancey's command ventured as far from Kingsbridge as Yonkers on August 4th. On August 26th they made another raid and three of them were taken prisoners while driving off some thirty sheep, which were recovered. Washington, upon his departure for the South, left Heath in command and advised him to continue the *petit guerre* with Sheldon's dragoons, the New York militia, and other light troops, and to hold the marauders in check. On September 19th it was reported that De Lancey's corps at Morrisania "is afflicted with a mortal sickness, and are much reduced in numbers." On December 23rd, Captain Williams, of the New York levies, stationed on the lines, made an excursion to Morrisania with twenty-five volunteers, and was so successful as to return with one captain, one lieutenant, and seven privates of De Lancey's command, and without losing a man. Captain Pritchard moved down with a detachment of continental troops to cover the retreat of the horse, but the enemy did not come out. On January 11, 1782, Cap-

tain Honeywell of the First Westchester Militia, with a number of volunteer horse, made an excursion to Morrisania and brought off as prisoners Captain Totten and three privates of De Lancey's command. A party of the enemy's horse pursued the retiring Americans, but were checked by Major Trescott with his covering body of continental troops, and no injury was sustained. The special object of the raid was to capture De Lancey, but he was again absent from his quarters. On February 26th, Abraham Dyckman, the Westchester guide, with thirteen volunteer horsemen, made another raid upon the Westchester Light Horse at Morrisania and took five prisoners and five horses. The pursuing party came too near, so the brave volunteers charged them, took one man with his horse, prisoner, and put the rest to flight. The enemy collected again and followed the Americans for some time, but did not have the temerity to come again within striking distance. On March 4th, Captain Honeywell, with a party of volunteer horse, supported by some light infantry under Major Woodbridge, made a raid to Morrisania, probably from information obtained from two prisoners of De Lancey's force taken the preceding day. The horse proceeded down between Number Eight and the cantonments of the Westchester Light Horse, and having turned the latter between daybreak and sunrise, entered pell-mell. The enemy was completely taken by surprise and fled in every direction; some were cut down, others were so badly wounded that they could not be removed as prisoners. Several escaped and ran to positions where the horse could not follow them and began to fire upon the attacking party; this occasioned the firing of alarm guns by the fort. The horse then withdrew, having nearly accomplished their object, the capture of De Lancey, and carrying with them as prisoners, one subaltern, twenty privates, and the same number of horses. The retirement was by way of the Eastchester Road, upon which Major Woodbridge had prepared an ambuscade. The enemy quickly gathered a party of horse and light infantry and started in pursuit, but fell into the ambuscade, which fired one or two volleys into them, when they broke and retired, but soon reformed and returned to the charge. The skirmishing continued for a considerable distance through Eastchester. The Americans lost two privates killed and three slightly wounded; the guide, Lieutenant Dyckman, was also wounded mortally. The State of New York has honored his memory, as well as that of Lieutenant-Colonel Christopher Greene and Major Nathan Flagg of the Rhode Island regiment by the erection of a handsome granite monument at Yorktown, the former Crompond, about seven miles east of Peekskill. On March 14th, Lieutenant Harris obtained intelligence of a party of De Lancey's men being at a house near the

Mile Square; and with a party of six surprised the enemy, consisting of twelve men, and killed one and took four prisoners. On May 19th, the First Massachusetts Brigade was ordered down to Kingsbridge to take possession of the German huts and encamp there. On June 27th there were several British war vessels anchored off the mouth of Spuyten Duyvil Creek. It is to be noticed in most of the raids that the attacking party was usually composed of militia and that the supporting or covering party was composed of regulars. This was probably in pursuance of a plan to inure the militia to danger and to give them confidence so that they could be rendered less unreliable. Their plundering proclivities were also given full play when they got inside the British cantonments.

The enemy on September 16, 1782, made a grand forage near Valentine's Hill under the personal supervision of the commander-in-chief, Sir Guy Carleton. He was attended by the young prince William Henry, afterwards William the Fourth, and a large detachment of troops, stated to have between five and six thousand, as a covering party. The enemy forestalled the Americans, who were sadly in want of forage themselves, owing to the dryness of the season. On October 20th, the British demolished their work at Number Eight. A few days later, the American army withdrew to the cantonments in the Highlands. Both sides were awaiting the news of the signing of the definite treaty of peace, and active operations ceased in the early part of 1783. The district so frequently raided by the light troops of both sides, thus deprived of all military control, or semblance of it, was given over to irresponsible bands of thieves and plunderers, who took from the few remaining inhabitants what little they had left. Until the civil authority of the State was once more established the territory of the borough was the scene of murder, robbery and burnings, which were without any cloak of military authority, except in so far as they were revengeful attacks upon the few hated loyalists who remained, or who had not fled to New York upon the withdrawal of the British outposts. Even as it was these marauders did not waste much time, if there was anything to be stolen, in asking or inquiring into the political opinions of their victims.

Following Yorktown—The surrender of Cornwallis on October 19, 1781, marked the beginning of negotiations for peace. These were greatly protracted, through the diplomatic wiles of the French minister, Vergennes, but on September 5, 1783, John Adams wrote that "on Wednesday the 3d day of this month, the American ministers met the British minister at his lodgings at the Hotel de York and signed, sealed, and delivered the definite treaty of peace between the United

States of America and the King of Great Britain." On October 18th Congress announced the event to the public, and on November 2nd it was promulgated to the army by General Washington from his headquarters at Rocky Hill, near Princeton, New Jersey. On the 29th of the same month the British troops, after an occupation of more than seven years, were to withdraw from New York, the last stronghold of monarchy in the young republic.

When preparations for the evacuation began the men and women who had shown open sympathy with the enemies of the American cause found themselves in no enviable situation. They had the option of remaining in the country and suffering much inconvenience at the hands of returned patriots, or of emigrating to Canada. The majority availed themselves of free transportation and the aid of the British king to begin a new life in Nova Scotia. At the same time many exiles from New York took advantage of the cessation of hostilities to visit the city. One of them writes under date of August 30, 1783: "This month completes seven years my family and self have lived in a state of exile from our wonted habitation in New York. I was lately over at New York, and though I did not meet with any considerable personal insult, I had the mortification to see some overgrown Tories whose looks I did not altogether approve of. As to the British they were tolerably civil and polite, and though there are sentries placed at almost every hundred yards distance they molest no one who behaves himself with propriety. The poor Hessians will soon be all embarked and gone; in general they have been very inclinable to desert. The firewood to the amount of several thousand cords laid in by the British army since last spring at the expense of 50s. and 3p. a cord, is now selling at 25s. and 28s. per cord. I met with some of my old acquaintances, who were some of them formerly very fat, stout men, that are now reduced to mere skeletons at the prospect of leaving this place with the army. There is no end to auctions and vendues; everything is selling off and I believe a great deal more than venders can make a good title for. Few or no negro slaves are given up. My chief errand to town was to look up one of mine and I saw the rogue but found that he had formed such connections with a certain great personage that I could no longer look upon him as my own. He told me he was going to 'Novy Koshee'."

Another communication, dated New York, September 9, 1783, says: "No news here but that of evacuation. This is hourly talked of and occasions a variety of Physiognomie, laughable appearances—some look smiling, others melancholy, a third class mad . . . . Tories are vexed with Tories; they curse the powers to whom they owe allegiance and thus render themselves rebellious; they profess wonderful concern about

the new States, apprehensive we may in time get to wrestling with each other till the blood comes." On November 12th, Carleton, the British commander-in-chief, notified General Washington that he hoped to withdraw all his troops by the end of the month; that the outposts at and north of McGowan's Pass would be withdrawn by the twenty-first; those at Herricks and Hempstead on Long Island on the same day; the town of Brooklyn the following day; and Paulus Hook, Dennis', and Staten Island as soon after as practicable. On the nineteenth General Carleton wrote that the above arrangement would be modified so that New York would be evacuated on the twenty-fifth instant at noon; retaining Staten Island, New Utrecht, and Dennis' "for such time as they may be found absolutely requisite for the troops that may then remain without transports." There were about six thousand five hundred Anglo-German troops remaining in the city and vicinity at this time; half of these were of the British royal artillery, seventeenth dragoons, light infantry, grenadiers, and seventh, twenty-second, twenty-third, thirty-eighth, fortieth, forty-third, seventy-sixth, and eightieth foot. The remainder were Hessians. Alderman Digby commanded the fleet, then in the harbor, and was charged with the duty of forwarding the refugees—of whom 29,244 left New York during the year—to Nova Scotia and other points. The difficulty in procuring transportation for such a large number contributed to delay the final departure of the king's forces. On the side of the continental army there was much to do in the way of disbandment, but by the middle of November there remained of those veteran legions, who had elicited the encomiums of their captive enemy at Saratoga, only a little band of scarce a thousand men.

Then the curtain was lifted on the last act of the military drama of which the second act had been played on the same stage eight years before. On the nineteenth Generals Washington and Knox and Governor Clinton, with their respective staffs, arrived at Day's Tavern. A small provisional brigade of detachments from the troops encamped at West Point and Newburgh, Massachusetts infantry and New York artillery together with a militia troop, in all about eight hundred men, under Brevet Brigadier-General Henry Jackson, had preceded the distinguished personages, and were in camp at McGowan's Pass. A unique part of this command comprised four six-pounders, trophies taken from the enemy, and displayed by the gallant Major Bauman. It was some time after noon on the memorable November 25th, when a British staff-officer reported that the rear-guard of the British army was embarking at the Battery. The American column immediately moved on by the route selected. Captain Stakes' troops furnished the advance guard, while, in the order prescribed, followed the remainder of the provisional brigade. The troops marched with the easy swing of old campaigners,

and although their uniforms were tarnished, of various hues and irregular pattern, yet their arms were bright and their faces shining with soldierly pride and recent ablutions; they represented in a sense the Old Guard of that patriot army which had won peace and prosperity. Down the Bowery, to Chatham, to Pearl or Queen, to Wall Street, through thousands of sympathetic and joyous people, the stalwart soldiers marched to their destination at Cape's Tavern. Here the line was formed and stood at "parade rest," while the main guard marched down Broadway to Fort George, followed by an excited throng eager to witness the most interesting feature of the occasion. As the guard passed the old fort the scene was impressive. In the upper bay and just off the Battery the warships lay at anchor, while their boats, loaded to the gunwales with red-coated grenadiers and blue-coated mercenaries, were slowly moving away from the landing. The parapets at Paulus Hook and on Governor's Island were also covered with curious spectators. Entering the abandoned work, upon which so many eyes were turned, the artillery officer charged with the duty of hoisting the American flag discovered, to his disgust, that somebody in their chagrin had removed the halyards and soaped the flagstaff. But a remedy was soon found for the difficulty. An agile young sailor was supplied with some rough wooden cleats and a pocketful of nails, and slowly but surely worked his way to the top of the pole, attached a new set of halyards, and in a twinkling the Stars and Stripes were flung to the breeze and saluted with thirteen guns and three times three from the throats of American freemen. As the first gun was fired the troops paraded in Broadway came to attention; as the echo of the last one died away Governor Clinton appeared opposite the right of the line and the brigade presented arms, while an artillery salute suitable to his rank once more thundered out.

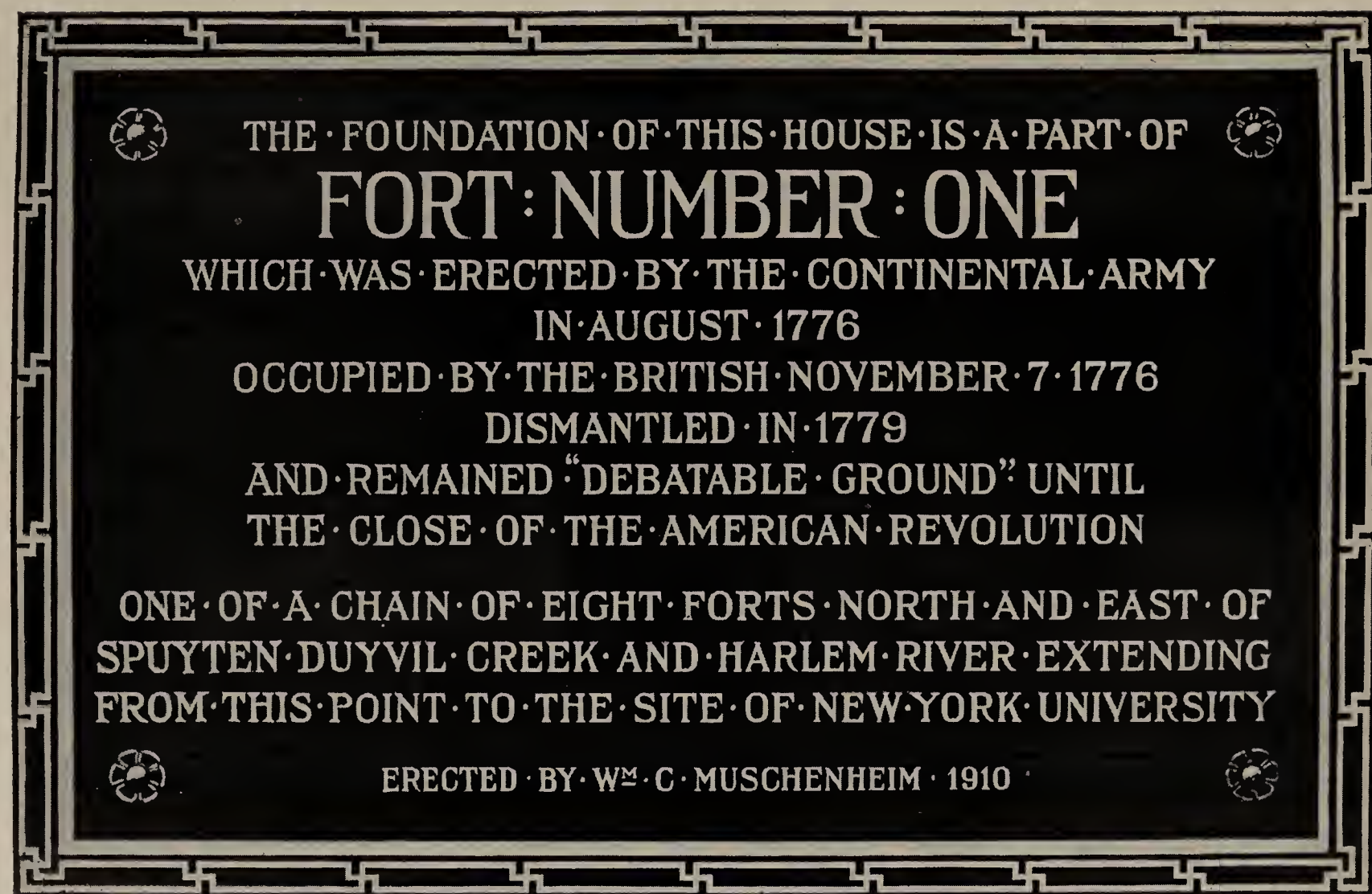
Apart from the military ceremonies a civic reception was tendered to the general and the governor. Both repairing to the Bull's Head, they were met by an immense concourse of citizens and a novel but solid escort of returned exiles bursting with enthusiasm. Elaborate addresses were made, full of the spirit of the hour. Each man wore "a Union cockade of black and white ribband on the left breast and a Laurel in the Hat," and all were formed in "a square—the field and other officers on the flanks of the square," and in that manner the heroes were conducted to their quarters. None could doubt the sincerity with which these once exiled New Yorkers addressed Washington: "In this place and at this moment of exultation and triumph, while the Ensigns of Slavery still linger in our sight, we look to you, our deliverer, with unusual transports of Gratitude and Joy." Carleton, the British commander, officially advised his government that "his

Majesty's Troops and such of the Loyalists as chose to emigrate, were on the 25th inst., withdrawn from the City of New York, in good order, and embarked without the smallest circumstance of irregularity or misbehavior of any kind." Even mother earth, it has been said, seemed to mark the significance of the event by unusual demonstrations. It is recorded by the reliable chronicler of those stirring days that on November 29th, "in the evening we felt a slight shock of an earthquake, and about 11 there was a more violent one which shook all the city in a surprising manner." On December 5th, Admiral Digby, with the last vestige of foreign force, sailed from Staten Island.

Organization of New York State—A word now about the organization of New York State. The State government established at Kingston, April 20, 1777, was until 1783, itinerant and desultory, while its actual jurisdiction was confined to the upper river counties. Before adjourning, the convention which had framed their constitution designated a committee to report a plan for organizing the government agreed to by the convention. This committee, in order to provide for the temporary representation of those counties within the British lines, reported a plan, subsequently acted on, by which delegates to the assembly were chosen to represent the counties within the royalist lines by the members elected in the State's jurisdiction. The convention continued in session until May 13, 1777, when it was finally dissolved, having previously appointed a committee or council of safety to administer the government until the organization contemplated by the convention should be perfected. A temporary judiciary was designated, consisting of Robert R. Livingston as chancellor, John Jay as chief justice, and Robert Yates and John Sloss Hobart as puisne justices of the Supreme Court. They were to hold office until a permanent judiciary was appointed by the council of appointment in the manner prescribed by the new constitution. The proceedings of the council of safety intrusted with the temporary government of the State, though historically interesting, are unimportant to its constitutional and legal history. The resolves of the provincial congresses and convention—the purely revolutionary government—were, by the thirty-fifth section of the Constitution of 1777, made a part of the fundamental law of the State, provided they were not repugnant to the Constitution. Yet, in a permanent sense, these resolves were not important to the jurisprudence of the State, for as late as 1818 no copy of them was to be found in the State archives. It was not until 1842 that the Legislature directed that these resolves be printed, so that the legislative records of the State might be complete and accessible. They were generally of a temporary or provisional character, and had no enduring effect. The resolves of the provincial convention were of a higher order than

those of the congresses. By one resolve of the convention the quit-rents due to the crown by the holders of land in the province were vested in the State. This resolve served a double purpose—it was a formal act of confiscation or escheat of the estate of the crown, and it preserved the relations existing under the socage tenure between the landowners and the head of the State. The subject received further consideration in the year 1779, and again in 1798. At an early period of the State government the condition of the laws attracted the attention of the authorities. At the opening of the second session of the State Legislature in October, 1778, Governor Clinton in his annual message said: "By the 35th Section of our Constitution the laws of this State are necessarily become complicate, and as every member of society is materially interested in the knowledge of the laws by which he is governed, I am induced to believe a careful revision of the laws of this State would be an acceptable service to your constituents and attended with the most salutary effects." In pursuance of this resolution, a committee was appointed to ascertain what laws were expiring and what new laws were necessary. Nothing of importance, however, was done toward the revision until after independence was assured. In 1779, long and confidently anticipating the time when the English power should be completely broken and the State in control of the new authorities, the State Legislature, sitting at Poughkeepsie, passed an act providing for the temporary government of the southern part of the State by a commission. But not until 1783 could this measure be effected, and then for several months it was in operation, and the southern counties were governed by a legislative commission until a general election for members of the assembly was held.

When the definite treaty of peace was signed with England and the evacuation of 1783 completed, the independent State government would have been completely sovereign here had it not been for the articles of confederation before the various colonies, effectuated in New York State by an act passed on February 6, 1778. These celebrated articles and the subsequent federal constitution had an important effect upon the sovereign power of the new State government. The instruments may be regarded from two opposite points of view: as expressions either of political conditions actually subsisting between the colonies, or else of relations created anew by conventions expressed in the instruments themselves. Historically speaking, neither the articles of confederation nor the subsequent constitution were the first efforts to form a union of the seaboard colonies. The first formal declaration of a living principle in national unity was as early as 1643. In that year the New England plantations confederated for united action of a defensive nature. By the terms of this union each colony preserved



THIS TABLET, PLACED ON THE HOUSE OF WILLIAM C. MUSCHENHEIM, ON SPUYTEN DUYVIL HILL, NEW YORK CITY, WAS DEDICATED NOVEMBER 5, 1910

Courtesy of the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society

its jurisdiction and powers of internal government intact, and without regard to size or population was represented by the same number of delegates at the federal council. As this example was independent of outside dictation civil war then raging in England, it may be regarded in the light of subsequent events as establishing a spontaneous principle of national union which, for convenience, may be called the decentralized principle. The plan of the convention of 1754, though abortive—it being rejected by both English and Americans—had some regard for the same principle. The Stamp Act Congress of 1765 is important politically rather than as a manifestation of any principle in national unity. The congresses of 1774, 1775, and 1776, enumerated a like principle, and in these national councils each of the colonies had an equal voice. Thus we perceive that all the prior political unions of the colonies were pursuant to that principle of decentralization ultimately embodied in the union. The Declaration of Independence declared the allegiance to the British crown absolved and the "United Colonies" free and independent States. This language and that of the subsequent terms of union, the federal constitution, gave rise to the celebrated controversy concerning the nature and extent of State sovereignty, a controversy much simplified if we have regard to the fact that the colonists could not, according to all accepted canons of the publicists, rebel as colonies, but only as individuals. Consequently they could only succeed in subverting English sovereignty and authority as individuals living in separated communities. Successful rebellion always transfers the sovereignty from the unsuccessful to the successful. Thus, in the eye of the publicist, individuals living in the province of New York succeeded to the entire political authority of the former government of New York, and they also succeeded in common with the warring people in all the other colonies, to the subverted general authority of the crown in its relations to the other seaboard colonies. There was no question that the people of a particular colony succeeded to the former sovereignty over that colony; the real question related to the manner in which they succeeded to certain imperial prerogatives of the crown, of far more general extent. A close analysis will perhaps demonstrate that the subverted imperial authority was ultimately invested by the people of all the colonies in the new general or federal government, and that the subverted sovereignty in a particular colony was transferred by its recipients to the new State government. On this analysis it may be said that the original articles of confederation failed to express the real partition of the subverted political power, while the federal constitution of 1787 accurately expressed the relations which the people in all the original colonies antecedently bore to the new order of things.

CHAPTER VII

POLITICAL STATUS OF THE TERRITORY

The Bronx as we now know it and as it forms a concept in our minds begins in regard to its history as a formlessness that eventually developed into a living organism, or as a container without content, or a locality that had not yet been the stage of any human drama. So it appears to us when we try to picture it in our mind before the advent of the White Man. The territory that is now the area of the Borough of The Bronx was of course not so bare of human event or human organization before the European connection as the words we have used imply. The Red Man had been there for an indefinite period. But the Red Man was without a history and had only a rudimentary organization. A continuous human drama had undoubtedly gone forward north of Manhattan through unnumbered generations. But though the Red Man himself was the actor in it he was hardly aware of the drama played by him. One generation had no means of preserving the memory of things seen and heard. The mechanism of a continual recollection had not been evolved. The Red Man had no writing, no hieroglyphic. The history of The Bronx may therefore be said to begin with the history of the White Man in The Bronx. All the prefatory period is twilight merging into Egyptian darkness. But even so the history goes back to a point not very remote from the beginnings of history in many of the northern parts of Europe.

We have already said a word or two in reference to the relation of the territory of The Bronx to Westchester County, of which it once formed a part and to New York City in which it was eventually merged. A slight recapitulation will be in order here. The northern boundary of Westchester County was fixed at the time the county was erected on November 1, 1683, and at the same time Long Island Sound was designated as the southern boundary, and the Hudson River as the western boundary. The line between New York remained a matter of dispute between the two States for more than two centuries. In the time of the Dutch possession of New York, the question of boundary between that province and the colony of Connecticut arose. It grew out of the conflicting charters granted by the Dutch and English governments. The States-General of Holland on October 11, 1614, gave a three years' monopoly of trade between Virginia and New France, from the fortieth to the forty-fifth degree of north latitude to the United Com-

pany of Merchants. That same year the trading post before spoken of was established by Christiaensen on Castle Island south of Albany. On June 3, 1621, the Dutch West India Company was chartered with the exclusive privilege of traffic and planting colonies on the coast of America from the Straits of Magellan in the remotest north. Under this charter settlements were made by the Dutch in what was then called New Netherland. In 1632 the arms of the States-General were erected at Kierit's Hoeck, later Saybrook, at the mouth of the Connecticut, which had been discovered by Adriaen Block in 1614, and called the Freshwater. The river had been periodically and exclusively visited by the Dutch traders for many years. Van Twiller, in 1633, purchased from the Indians an extensive tract of land, called the Connittelsock, lying on the west bank of the river and sixty miles from its mouth. At this point was established a trading post, called "The House of Good Hope." On November 3, 1620, King James I incorporated "The Council established at Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for the planting, ruling, ordering and governing New England in America," commonly called the Plymouth Company. The charter conferred upon them the territory lying between the fortieth and forty-eighth degrees of north latitude, and the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The Earl of Arundel, president of this company, in 1631 granted to Robert, Earl of Warwick, the country from the Narragansetts, along the shore forty leagues, and westward to the Pacific Ocean. The Governor of Massachusetts Bay Colony protested against the establishment of the fortified post, the translation of the name of which is "The House of Good Hope," as an encroachment on English rights, and Van Twiller responded, October 4, 1633, that Connittelsock belonged to the Dutch by right of purchase. An expedition from the Plymouth Colony had already landed about a mile above the Dutch trading post, and what is now Connecticut was soon settled at various points by the English.

Prior to the opening of the controversy between the Dutch and English colonists, a similar passage of arms had been going on on the other side of the ocean. The Plymouth Company complained to the Privy Council about the Dutch "intruders" and as early as February, 1622, we find the British ambassador at The Hague, Sir Dudley Carlton, claiming New Netherland as a part of New England, and requiring the States-General to stay the prosecution of their plantation. To this remonstrance no attention was paid. On May 5, 1632, the West India Company reported to the States-General that "the English themselves, according to their charter (of Massachusets Bay), place New England on the coast between the 41st and 45th degrees of latitude. But the English began in the year 1606 to resort to Virginia, which is south of our territory of New Netherland, and fixed the boundaries, according

to their charter, from the 37th to the 39th degree, so that our boundaries according to their own showing, should be from the 39th inclusive to the 41st degree, within which bounds we are not aware that they ever undertook any plantation. What boundaries Your High Mightinesses have granted to your subjects, can be seen by the charter issued in the year 1615," which date appears to refer to the charter of October 11, 1614, which went into effect on January 1, 1615. The remonstrance of New Netherland of July 28, 1649, maintained their right of possession by virtue of the discovery made by the ship "de Halve Maen," belonging to the General East India Company, whereof Henry Hudson was master; and that its boundaries were "the ocean or great sea which separates Europe from America, by New England and Fresh (Connecticut) River, in part by the river of Canada (the St. Lawrence) and by Virginia." England was equally pertinacious in her claim over Connecticut, resting it upon the discoveries of the Cabots in 1494 and 1497, and upon that of Gosnold in 1602, as well as upon the denial of the right of the Dutch. Hudson never made any sale to the English. It was upon the validity of this sale, in connection with the voyage of the Dutchman, Adriaen Block, in 1614, through Hell Gate and along the coast of Connecticut to Fisher's and Block's Island, and Cape Cod that the claim of the Dutch to Connecticut rested. The claim of the Dutch to the coast of Connecticut was maintained in 1646 by Governor Kieft, who threatened Governor Eaton, of Connecticut, with war if that colony did not respect Dutch rights. All offers to settle the dispute by arbitration were refused by the Dutch.

Westchester and Connecticut Boundary—In 1650, Peter Stuyvesant, on behalf of the colony of New Netherland, had a conference with the authorities of Connecticut at Hartford, which resulted in a provisional treaty on the boundary that the line should "begin at the west side of Greenwich Bay, being about four miles from Stamford, and so run a northerly line twenty miles up into the country, until it shall be notified by the two governments of the Dutch and of England, provided the said line come not within ten miles of the Hudson River." This agreement was never sanctioned by the home governments and thirteen years later, on October 13, 1663, a second conference was held at which Connecticut proposed "that West Chester and all ye people and lands between that & Stamford shall belong to their colony of Connecticut till it be otherwise issued," which proposition was refused by the agents of Governor Stuyvesant, who proposed that "West Chester, with the land and people to Stamford, shall Abide under the government of Connecticut tell the tyme that the bounds and limits betwixt the Above-said collonij and the province of New Netherlands shall be determined heare (by our mutual Accord or by persons mutually chosen, *margin*)

or by his Royal Majesty of England and other high and mighty lords of the estates of the united provinces." War breaking out between England and Holland this agreement was never ratified by the home governments.

On April 23, 1662, King Charles II granted to the colony of Connecticut the following boundary: "All that part of our dominion in America bounded by Narraganset Bay, commonly called Naragonsit Bay, where the said river falleth into the sea, and on the north by the line of the Massachusetts plantation, and on the south by the sea; and in longitude as the line of the Massachusetts Colony, running from east to west; that is to say, from the said Narraganset Bay on the east to the south sea on the west part; with the islands thereto adjoining, etc." That most comprehensive grant not only covered the disputed territory, but took the greater part of the Dutch claim on the Hudson. King Charles granted to his brother, the Duke of York and Albany, on March 24, 1664, all of New Netherland from the Delaware to Cape Cod. This grant embraced Connecticut east of the Connecticut River—with some variations of the boundaries—and also the whole of Long Island, "together with all the river called Hudson River, and the lands from the west side of Connecticut River to the east side of Delaware Bay." By the charter and patent issued less than two years of each other, nearly all of New York was granted to Connecticut, and most of Connecticut given to New York. On September 18, 1664, Colonel Richard Nicolls, the representative of the Duke of York, received the surrender of the city of New Amsterdam, and the whole of the New Netherlands accepted the situation of an English colony by October 12th following. Notwithstanding the charter of Connecticut was older than the patent to the Duke of York, no little alarm was taken when it was known that their boundaries had been disregarded by the king in his patent to his brother. Delegates were dispatched by the authorities of Connecticut to the governor of New York for the purpose of congratulation and settlement of the boundary line. These delegates and the commissioners appointed by the governor of New York met on October 28, 1664, and came to the understanding that the boundary line between the two claimants should be fixed at a distance of twenty miles east of the Hudson River and running parallel with that river northward from Long Island Sound. This agreement was not signed and a few weeks later it was ordered and declared: "That ye Creeke or ryver called Momoronock which is reported to be about thirteen myles to ye east of West Chester, and a lyne drawne ye east point or Syde where ye fresh water falls into ye salt, at high water marke, north-northwest to ye line of ye Massachusetts be ye westerne bounds of ye said Colony of Connecticut."

The line thus established proved fruitful of civil strife. The Connecticut officials induced Nicolls to believe that Mamaroneck was twenty miles east of the Hudson. Nicolls trusted them and hence arose the trouble, the real distance of Mamaroneck from the Hudson being only about ten miles instead of twenty. The intention was that this line, twenty miles east of the Hudson, should continue at that distance until it struck the boundary line of Massachuestts; but being given a northwest direction, it intersected the Hudson River at West Point and cut off a large part of New York west of that river. On November 24, 1683, negotiations were again undertaken to fix the boundary line, and articles were concluded between Governor Dongan and the Council of New York, and the governor and delegates of Connecticut, that the line should run as originally intended, twenty miles east of the Hudson River. But upon it becoming evident that such a line would deprive Connecticut of several towns which she had planted, it became necessary to vary the line in parts so that these towns should remain in Connecticut; hence the zigzag boundary line at the southern end between the two States; and as an offset for the territory thus given to Connecticut, an "equivalent tract" was taken from Connecticut at the northern end of the line, and "The Oblong," of 64,000 acres, or a tract two miles in width and fifty in length, was given to New York from Ridgefield to the Massachusetts line.

The boundary thus agreed upon began at the mouth of Byram River at a point thirty miles from New York, and following that stream as far as the head of tidewater, or about a mile and a half from the Sound, to a certain "wading place," where the common road crossed the stream at a rock known and described as "The Great Stone at the Wading-Place." From that stone the line was to run northwest till it should reach a point eight miles from the Sound; thence a line running eastward parallel to the general course of the Sound, and twelve miles in length was fixed upon. From its termination another line, eight miles in length, was to be run in a north-northwest direction, and from the end of that line the boundary was to extend north to the Massachusetts line, with the "equivalent tract" included. The boundary line thus agreed upon remained as such for many years, recognized but not legally established by the concurrent action of both States. The legislature of Connecticut, on May 8, 1684, formally approved the agreement and appointed the surveyor to lay off the line. In October following Governor Dongan's officers met the surveyor of Connecticut at Stamford, and the amount of land conceded to Connecticut was ascertained, but their survey terminated with the line drawn parallel to the Sound as far as a point twenty miles from the river. Beyond this they simply indicated what they supposed would be the extent of "The Oblong" to

be laid out as an "equivalent tract." This condition of the boundary line remained unchanged, when on March 29, 1700, King William III approved and confirmed the agreement of 1683 and 1684, whereby Rye and Bedford were included in New York. The boundary dispute continued unsettled and in October, 1718, commissioners appointed by the two governments met at Rye, but failed to agree upon a method of procedure—the New York commissioners refusing to go on with the survey because those of Connecticut were not empowered to bind their government to any line that might be settled upon. In 1719, though Connecticut appointed new commissioners with larger powers, they were still without power to agree upon a final and conclusive settlement. "A probationary act" by New York followed, providing for the appointment of a new commission for each colony, and requiring the New York commission to run all the lines in accordance with the agreement and survey of 1683 and 1684, and this duty was required to be performed, though no commission from Connecticut should be appointed. This act was conditional on the royal approbation. This proposition was not responded to by Connecticut until October, 1723, when a commission with full powers was appointed, and the two commissions met at Rye in April, 1725. Their work began at "the great stone at the wading-place," and extended to the "Duke's trees," at the northwest angle of the town of Greenwich, where three white oaks had been marked in 1684, as the termination of the survey of that year. Here want of funds suspended the work, which was not resumed until 1731, when the survey was completed to the Massachusetts line; the "equivalent tract" or "oblong" was measured and set off to New York, and the line designated by monuments along the course. This survey was ratified as to the oblong of both governments and remained unquestioned until May, 1855, when Connecticut opened the subject again, because "ranges of marked trees had long since disappeared. Many of the heaps of stones originally erected had been scattered. Traditions were found inconsistent and contradictory, varying the line in places to a considerable extent. Along the whole distance the greatest uncertainty existed, and a distrust and want of confidence in all the supposed lines, rather than a disposition to contend for any. Residents near the border refrained from voting in either state; while officers of justice and collectors of revenue from both hesitated to exercise their authority up to any clearly defined limit. These circumstances were taken advantage of by those who desired to evade the payment of taxes or the severity of the law." To this statement of facts New York responded by the appointment in January, 1856, of C. W. Wentz of Albany, an engineer of established reputation, to survey, ascertain and mark the boundary line. No difficulty intervened from the initial point at the

"wading stone," to the Ridgefield angle, but from thence to the Massachusetts line a radical difference interposed between the commissions. The representatives of Connecticut contended for a straight line between the two extreme points, fifty-three miles apart, because the old monuments and marks upon the line were generally removed, and the original line could not be traced with any certainty by reference to them. On the other hand the commissioners of New York considered their authority limited to "ascertaining" the boundary as originally defined; no agreement was reached and in August, 1859, each State appointed new commissioners; but at their conference at Port Chester, September 13, of that year, the same difference of views confronted the commission and the conference resulted in no practical work. On April 3, 1860, New York passed an act empowering the commission formerly appointed to survey and mark with suitable monuments the "line between the two States as fixed by the survey of 1731." Under this authority the New York commission fixed and marked the boundary line between the two States, placing monuments along the line at intervals of one mile from the Massachusetts line to the south of Byram River. Still unsettled, the question came up by Connecticut threatening to contest her claims and in 1878 and in 1879, both States appointed commissioners to establish the boundaries. An agreement was made, December 5, 1879, whereby the western boundary of Connecticut was fixed as the *ex parte* line surveyed by New York in 1860, which was the old line of 1731. Connecticut therefore gave up her claim to the twenty-six hundred acres in dispute between the straight line and the line of 1731 as reached, in exchange for her southern boundary extended into the Sound. The agreement was ratified by the legislatures of both States and confirmed by Congress during the session of 1880-81.

Making up The Bronx—Thus, to recapitulate a little, the county of Westchester was formed in 1683. Its western boundary was the Hudson River; its northern, Dutchess, later Putnam County; its eastern, the Connecticut Colony and Long Island Sound; its southern, the East and Harlem rivers and Spuyten Duyvil Creek. What became later the Borough of The Bronx was included within the county until 1874 for the western part of the borough, and until 1895 for the eastern part. Its history is until those dates part of the history of the county. The county also comprehended the islands contiguous to its shores. By the act of the State legislature, March 7, 1788, all the counties were divided into townships. There were twenty-one of these in Westchester County, following very closely the lines of the ancient manors and patents. The section under consideration was formerly within the towns of Yonkers, Morrisania, Eastchester, Pelham, and West-

chester. Yonkers was a part of the Philipseburgh Manor, sequestrated by the State in 1779, on account of the disloyalty of its owner, Colonel Frederick Philipse. The part of the township within the borough was known as Lower Yonkers; and it remained a part of the original township until June 1, 1872, when the city of Yonkers was incorporated. At the same time the portion of the township lying south of a line drawn from the northwest corner of the land belonging to the Sisters of Charity, known as St. Vincent de Paul, due east to the Bronx River, was set off as a new township under the name of Kingsbridge. It remained a part of the Yonkers township until December 16 of the same year, when the selection of town officers was perfected. Its northern boundary was the line given above, from the Hudson River to the Bronx; its southern, the northern line of the ancient manor of Fordham, from the Harlem River at East 230th Street to a point on the Bronx River between First and Second avenues, Williamsbridge, and Spuyten Duyvil Creek; its western, the Hudson River.

Morrisania was the most sparsely settled section of the whole county, and why it should have been made into a township, is, as has been before intimated, not quite clear, unless it was by reason of the influence and prominence of its owner, Lewis Morris, the signer of the Declaration of Independence. The new constitutional government had gone into effect in New York in 1789, but the site of the permanent capital of the nation was a matter of considerable discussion. Morris believed his manor to be an ideal spot for it; hence, its formation into a township. On October 1, 1790, the Congress in session in New York was made to determine the location of the new capital, and Morris memorialized it in favor of Morrisania. He told the Congress that the manor was more advantagously situated for the members of Congress's residence than any other place that has hitherto been proposed to them, and much better accommodated with the necessary requisites of convenience of access, health, and security. He claimed moreover that vessels from the four eastern States may arrive at Morrisania through the Sound, in the course of a few hours, and that ships from the Carolinas and Georgia may perform voyages to Morrisania with much more safety and despatch than they can to the ports of Philadelphia and Annapolis, not being incommoded with tedious passages of two hundred miles each up bays and rivers which often consume a fortnight or three weeks — passages rendered hazardous by rocks and shoals, and annually obstructed by ice. Its owner declared that Morrisania was so situated that vessels might arrive from, or proceed to, sea, sometimes in six hours.... and that this passage, from the quantity and saltness of the water, has never been totally impeded by ice. He went on to say that Morrisania had always been noted for health and

salubrity, that the fever and the ague were unknown there, and that persons from other places, emaciated by sickness and disease, there shortly recovered and were speedily reinforced in health and vigor. Morris claimed that Morrisania was perfectly secure from any dangers either from foreign invasion or internal insurrection and being only twenty miles from the State of Connecticut, and eight miles from the city of New York, that it therefore could be amply protected by the hardy sons of New England on the one side and the inhabitants of the populous city of New York on the other, and that as the chief defence of this country would have to be its militia there were more fighting men within a sweep of thirty miles around Morrisania than perhaps within the same distance around any other place in America, as there were many populous places which contain large proportions of inhabitants who were principled by religion against bearing arms, and other places which contained negro inhabitants who not only did not fight themselves, but by keeping their masters at home, prevented them from fighting also. However, the arguments of Morris appeared potent only to himself and Morrisania was not endowed with the honor of being made the capital of the United States. By an act of the legislature of February 2, 1791, it ceased even to be a separate township and became a part of the township of Westchester and later of West Farms. It so remained until December 7, 1855, when it again became a separate township. Previous to 1848 there were few settlers; but the revolutions that occurred in Europe at that time sent a stream of immigrants to the great continent in the west and many of them settled at Morrisania, developing the sites of field and farms until they became the homes of a village population. The bounds of the township at both creations, that of 1788 and that of 1855, were the same as those of the ancient manor. The southerly line, which was also the southerly line of Fordham Manor, began at the Harlem River immediately south of the present High Bridge, and extended east to Union Avenue between East 170th and 171st streets. Its eastern boundary was practically Union Avenue to Bungay Creek (Intervale Avenue), which it followed to the East River. Its other boundaries were the East River, Bronx Kills, and the Harlem River.

The township of Eastchester, created in 1788, had for its western boundary the Bronx River. On the north was Scarsdale; on the east the Hutchinson River; on the south, Black Dog Brook and a line drawn from the head of the brook on the line of 229th Street to the Bronx River. When the city of Mount Vernon was incorporated in 1892 the township of Eastchester was divided into two parts, entirely separated from each other by the newly formed, intervening city. The southern piece was the smaller; and when the question of annexation

was submitted to the people in 1894 the inhabitants voted to be taken into the city of New York. Pelham township was what remained of Pelham Manor. It was triangular in form, New Rochelle being its base or northerly line, and the two sides being the Sound and Hutchinson's River. It also included Hunter, Twin, Hart, High, and City islands. The portion taken for the city of New York is almost entirely within Pelham Bay Park. The part annexed to New York was the ancient Annes Hoeck, or Pell's Neck, and Rodman's Neck, as well as the islands adjacent. The township of Westchester, created in 1788, included all the rest of the land within the limits of the borough; the ancient manor of Fordham, the West Farms tract, and all the land between the Hutchinson River, the Bronx River, and the Sound, with a northerly boundary at the Eastchester line from Black Dog Brook to the Bronx River. This included about one half the borough. The town was further increased by the accession of Morrisania, on February 22, 1791. It remained intact until May 13, 1846, when the township of West Farms was formed out of its territory. West Farms, created in 1846, comprised all the land west of the Bronx River, as far as the Harlem River, lying south of Yonkers, until December 7, 1855, when the township of Morrisania was once more formed from its territory. It thus included the manors of Morrisania and Fordham and the West Farms patent of 1663.

Annexation to the City—The annexation of a part of Westchester County to the city of New York was a question that arose long before any formal action was taken by the authorities. As early as 1864 it was proposed to unite the townships of Morrisania and West Farms under a special city charter; but the objections of the inhabitants of West Farms defeated the project. In 1869 one of the Tweed members of the legislature from Mount Vernon proposed the annexation of a large portion of the county to the city; but as the action was taken without any reference to the wishes of the inhabitants or their immediate representative, that representative arose in his place and announced that, in a few days, he would introduce a bill to annex the city of New York to Morrisania, a piece of sarcasm which defeated the movement at that time. In the autumn of 1872, the people of West Farms and Morrisania came together; and the following year the bill referring the question of annexation to the people was enacted. Owing to disputes among the officials the bill provided that the streets should be placed under the Park Department, a scheme that worked more harm than good to the newly annexed district until the streets were put under a special Department of Street Improvements of the Twenty-third and Twenty-fourth wards on January 1, 1891. On January 1, 1874, by the act of the Legislature before referred to the townships of Kingsbridge, West

Farms, and Morrisania became a part of the city of New York, and were formed into the Twenty-third and Twenty-fourth wards. The new wards were also spoken of as Annexed District; they constitute that part of the borough lying west of the Bronx River and comprise 12,317 acres.

During the election of November 6, 1894, the question of the Greater New York was submitted to the inhabitants of the localities affected, including Westchester, Eastchester, Pelham, and the city of Mount Vernon. The result of the referendum showed good majorities for annexation in Eastchester and Pelham, while Mount Vernon and Westchester voted against, the former by a large majority, and the latter by a majority of one. The adverse majority in Westchester was so small that it was ignored by the annexationists; and July 1, 1895, the whole section east of the Bronx River became a part of the city of New York, forming part of the Twenty-fourth Ward. It comprised nearly 14,000 acres, making the total area taken from Westchester County by the two annexations 26,017 acres, or about thirty-nine and a third square miles. On January 1, 1898, the charter of the Greater New York went into effect, and the whole annexed section north of the Harlem River became officially known as the Borough of The Bronx. On January 1, 1902, the revised charter of the Greater New York went into effect. It gives a certain amount of autonomy to the different boroughs, especially in the matter of local improvements, though many acts of the local boards are subject to the Board of Aldermen or Board of Estimate and Apportionment, or both, when the outlay authorized by the local board exceeds two thousand dollars. The local boards of The Bronx are composed of the borough president and the aldermen of the local improvement districts. There are four such districts in the borough: the Twenty-second, or Morrisania; the Twenty-third, or Chester; the Twenty-fourth, or Crotona; and the Twenty-fifth, or Van Cortlandt.

When the two annexations took place the sections ceased to be parts of Westchester County and became parts of New York County. In the matter of congressional, senate, assembly, and judicial representation, however, portions of the borough were at first attached to Westchester County; though there is now separation. The borough constitutes the eighteenth congressional district; but on the basis of population as shown in the recent federal census it is entitled to increased congressional representation. There are eight aldermanic districts, and four local school districts, each having its own board. The borough is allowed two municipal courts where civil cases may be tried in which the value in controversy does not exceed two hundred and fifty dollars. There are also two police magistrate's courts for the settle-

ment of minor cases of crimes and misdemeanors and for preliminary hearings in cases of felony. For police protection the borough is divided into nine precincts with 756 men.

Prior to its annexation to New York City the section which then comprised The Bronx lying west of the Bronx River, covering more than twelve thousand acres, consisted of fifty-two sparsely settled villages and hamlets with an approximate population of thirty-three thousand. The annexation of the territory east of The Bronx came twenty years later. Following the borough's annexation to New York City, when it became familiarly known as the North Side, its rate of growth was greatly accelerated.

Post-Revolutionary Days—However, a good deal of interesting history flowed beneath the bridges in the territory of The Bronx before it became a part of New York City. It may be readily imagined that years must have elapsed before the memory of the wrongs and of the emotions which they aroused should have disappeared to any extent among the inhabitants of the valley of the Bronx and the adjacent neighborhoods, who had suffered so much in the Revolutionary conflict. The bitter animosities in families and between neighbors which had been engendered, it were hard for the most considerate to lay aside. "The high-handed measures of confiscation, which followed the proclamation of peace," writes one Westchester commentator, "served to inflame the old sores; and the accusations, indictments, prosecutions, and inflictions for offenses of the war-time, which filled up, for several years after it, the proceedings of the County Court of Sessions, are but indications not more of the outrages reprehended, than of the subsequent unwillingness to condone and forget them. The many missed faces, the traces of care and anxiety on those one did meet, the decayed and vacant houses and dilapidated barns, the marked change in the circumstances of the well-to-do families, the alteration in the moral tone, not only of the young, but of many past the years of early life, who, in them had been most exemplary, the number of diseased and wounded men, many of whom were hastening to their graves, the often felt presence still of the lawless marauder daring enough to follow his once reckless trade —all this kept up long the general sadness and fearfulness. The story indeed would be incomplete if mention were not made of the hundreds of excellent people who reluctantly left the county for foreign homes. But for those who did remain is the credit due that they settled themselves to their old employments, much impoverished, but with strong wills, and not a few with great hopes. Patriotic expressions, declarations of the difficulties of the situation, wise counseling as to the public policy, and as to the courses of action in the several industries and interests,

mingle in the letters of the day, with the usual detail of incident, and ever and anon with passionate denunciation of the past follies of neighbors bringing so much trouble. The farms of the county, with soil none the best to be sure, were in a while restored to their former yielding power, and signs of the old comfort and thrift began to appear. It was not long before it was realized that the former strength and prosperity were fast returning. The population, which had decreased some one thousand or twelve hundred, began to show marks of increase. Perhaps nothing gave a stronger impulse to the improvement in the condition of the county than the demand, at the beginning of this century (the nineteenth), for the products of the American soil in foreign markets, during the distracting and devastating war on the European continent. The prices which the farmer obtained were almost fabulous, and all the other industries, of course, flourished under the good fortune. In connection with this it must also be stated that the freedom of the seas was now open, unrivaled, to the new nation, whose fine harbors so distinctively seemed to point out the commercial consequence to which, under a wise policy, she might attain. The Port of New York was especially marked for its activity, and the number of vessels which weekly started, freighted for foreign markets, seem, under all the circumstances, almost incredible. Of course, from this prosperity of the city, Westchester County, in its turn, derived much advantage. In noting the progress of the several towns we are struck with the steadily increasing traffic by land and water, and with the multiplication of the facilities for intercommunication. Smaller roads are being constructed and ready access afforded to the mills, to the villages and to the river and the Sound. The old thoroughfares are being improved and new lengths of road take the place of impracticable old ones. On the east side of the county, by act of the Legislature of 1800, under a company of which Philip Pell, John P. Delaney, Cornelius Roosevelt, Peter J. Munroe and Gabriel Furman are the members mentioned in the bill, a turnpike road was constructed from East Chester to Byram River, over which soon passed the eastward stage to Greenwich, Stamford, Danbury, New Haven and on to Boston, of course covering the various villages of the county which were on the route. But still other matters attract our attention. The religious services have been resumed at all the old points and the church edifices have been repaired or rebuilt. Where titles were defective and action of the town was required, the steps thought proper were taken at town-meeting, or where an act of the Legislature was needed to protect a neighbor or his family from wrong, it was applied for and obtained. Take as an instance the act passed June 19, 1812, for the heirs of a valued citizen and patriot, John G. Wright, in which it was provided that 'letters patent issue for Charity

Wright, his widow, and for his heirs for five hundred acres in the tract set apart for the use of the line of this State in the Army of the United States, which said John Wright was a Surgeon's mate in the General Hospital in the Northern Department.' The machinery of the higher courts was set in motion and crimes were promptly punished and wrongs were thoughtfully and certainly redressed. The education of the children became more an object of attention under new incentives and necessities. The provisions of the act of the 9th of April, 1795, by which the sum of one thousand one hundred and ninety-two pounds was given annually for five years for school purposes to the county of Westchester, grew out of this feeling and were responded to according to the conditions of the gift by the voters of each town in the appropriation of a sum equal to one half of what was received, school commissioners being chosen for the distribution of the moneys. Just as readily in 1812 when an equal sum to that appropriated by the State was in a new act asked of each town the vote was readily given and the proper officers named. During this period throughout the country schoolhouses were being restored or re-erected. Provision for the poor was also freely made yearly by the several towns and by the Board of Supervisors. In 1786 eighteen hundred pounds were appropriated for the erection of court-houses and jails at White Plains and Bedford. After the burning of the public buildings at White Plains in the war, prisoners had been confined in the jails of New York, Westchester, and Kingston, and in other places temporarily for safety, and the courts were held in the Presbyterian Church at Bedford and the church building at East Chester."

The steady and regular increase appears the more wonderful as remembered in connection with the known fact of heavy losses by the removal of some of the best people of Westchester to large farms and more productive localities in the northern and central regions of the State, remarks the same writer. To the adjoining city there was and ever since has been a large annual contribution of those preferring the haunts of trade. The names of Westchester County settlers appear in large numbers in the City Directory of the early years of this century and in the Record Books of Deeds, Mortgages and Wills, at the county seats of Northern, Central and Western New York. In many cases the farmer soldiers of the Revolution, or those to whom they had sold out their "rights," were eventually settling on the lands which had been laid out for and divided among the troops of the State of New York. Charles Ward wrote on June 16, 1795, from the Palatine Bridge, on the Mohawk: "Business goes on briskly this summer, and my crops like to be good, and I have the prospect of getting in a large crop of wheat." At the height of this prosperity the course

FLAG OF THE BOROUGH OF THE BRONX, ADOPTED IN 1912

Courtesy of the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society

which England and France thought fit to take to weaken each other in 1806 had the most serious effect upon the United States, whose interest and desire was to avoid all complications and preserve peace. In this crisis, the consequences of which were felt throughout the land in the depreciation of values, particularly of the agricultural products, the Embargo Act, which prohibited any exportation of goods whatever, brought the people into the still more subdued position, strongly stated at the time as "one in which they shall sell nothing but what they sell to each other," and "all our surplus produce shall rot on our hands." The reduction in prices went on until it amounted to sixty per cent. Wheat, which had been selling per bushel at two dollars, scarce brought seventy-five cents. And not only were the citizens of Westchester affected by the diminished value of their goods, but also many of them by the stoppage of the returns from their ventures in the ships and their cargoes, in which they had joined interest with the traders of the city.

The population in the Bronx valley and in the county were prepared without distinction of party to enter with their fellow-citizens of the State into the defence of their country in the War of 1812. There is abundant evidence that the factious spirit which appeared in New England made but little show in these parts. The questions discussed were rather as to the wisdom and the vigor which characterized the movements in asserting national dignity than as to the necessity of them. Time had been allowed since the aggressive act of 1806 to the most partial to realize the narrow and contemptuous feeling of the enemy and new evidence was springing up in the acts of impressment and uncalled-for interference with our marine, that self-preservation was the necessity of the hour. The numbers of foremost citizens of the towns in the district who were remembered as having taken great pride in their military service in the war against Great Britain, show that by the best members of the community there was evinced at the time all the zeal which anxiety for the reputation of the county could desire. In the positions of home defense as well as of active duty at distant points and in the invoked labors of placing "the city" in a condition of resistance the sons of Westchester were behind none of their countrymen.

Condition of Bronx Territory—A painstaking scrutiny of the condition of The Bronx valley and the county during the war gives evidence of a good deal of prosperity rather than of embarrassment. The prices were encouraging to labor and a number of the citizens of these times laid, then, the foundations of their future wealth. The crops seem to have been abundant. So, when peace was restored there was a broad basis laid upon which a substantial prosperity might steadily be realized.

As in the colonial period so for many years after it the population was made up of thrifty farmers, the colored element, a few tradespeople and mechanics, and a sprinkling of men of wealth, the influence of whose hereditary or acquired fortunes was distinctly felt in the neighborhoods in which they had settled. In the statement of the amount of internal duties imposed by the laws of the United States, except those on furniture, watches and stamps, paid by each person in the third collection district of New York during the year 1815, an impression is given of the financial strength of Westchester County.

What a sight must have presented itself as over the three great thoroughfares, not only the farmers of the county, but often, as when the river and Sound were icebound, those of the regions beyond passed into the city with their heavy loads of produce, writes William S. Coffey. "There were hours of the day when the roads, it is said, were fairly blocked by the heavy traffic upon them, and eye witnesses declare that at night even the floors of the bar and sitting rooms of the taverns were spread with the sleepers tarrying themselves and their teams to rest for a few hours on the way. The activity thus apparent was accompanied with such improvements in the several neighborhoods as readily to attract the attention of travelers. The care taken of the highways and of the various public buildings may be seen in the town and church records. A reference to some of the private accounts shows in the repair of houses and estates a careful and yet liberal expenditure." About this time the Poor House of the County was built. The date of its construction is 1827. It was situated in the town of Mt. Pleasant, about five miles north of White Plains, and two miles east of Tarrytown, in a beautiful portion of the county. The farm contained one hundred and seventy-three acres, and the institution several buildings of stone.

Homes in the Early Period—In the meantime the region and the country had made progress along various lines of development. In New York and the region about the Hudson River, writes the Rev. Edward Eggleston, the foundation form of the early dwelling was the Dutch house built with its gable to the street. The top of the gable was notched into corbel steps and the black fire-bricks of the kiln were laid alternating with red or yellow ones to make checks on the gable front. Mrs. Van Cortlandt sketches the houses of the middle class and the farmers which, she says, were of rough stone when they were not of brick. "The windows were filled in with small panes of glass; the heavy wooden outside shutters swung upon massive iron hinges. They had usually a crescent cut near the top to admit the early light and were held back by an iron somewhat in the shape of an S inserted in the stone wall. As ground was cheap these houses were large in extent

and commonly a story and a half in height, the roof sloping steeply from the ridge pole, and dormer windows broke its uniformity. Double pitched houses were of later date, as were those in the interior of the county, shingled on the sides as well as on the roof. The front door was invariably divided into halves; in the upper half were two bull's eyes of glass to light the hall, and it was graced with a heavy brass knocker. The lower half had a heavy latch. A wide plaza surrounded the house. In the villages a front stoop was common, with benches on each side. Here the families took their evening rest and the neighbors discussed the questions of the day. The houses mostly had a southern exposure. Attached to them was usually an extension for the kitchen and the use of the servants, which was generally built of brick. Many bricks were brought from Holland, but these extensions or wings were most frequently built of rough brick from the kilns on the Hudson River, of which early mention is made. In houses of much size the rooms were often wainscoted to the height of about three feet, or a chair board (a beveled moulding) ran about the same height from the floor. Sometimes the wainscot was carved, as well as the paneling about the deep wooden seats and the mantelpieces. The fireplaces occupied a large space, in some very old houses being placed cornerwise. Tiles, usually of Scripture scenes, adorned the fireplaces. Some were of quite fine ware, entirely white, as in the Van Cortlandt Manor house, where one or two were spared by the soldiers when removing the rest to use as plates. The fire-irons, fender and andirons, were of solid brass and always as brilliant as hands could make them, forming with the fire a perfect picture, but alas for those who in biting winter days could not get close to that fire." As the colony grew stronger the Dutch scattered farther into the interior and luxury invaded the towns which they and the other settlers founded along the Hudson. As they built better houses they made or imported fine furniture for them, but the earlier equipment of the living rooms was as rude in character as scant in number. The pallet on the floor—"the Kermis bed," as the Dutch called it—was an occasional resort, even in good houses. The Labadist travelers in 1688 sojourned in a tavern near the Hudson that put its guests to sleep on a horse bedding of hay before the fire; and a hundred years later Chateaubriand found an inn on the New York frontier where everybody slept about a central post that upheld the roof, heads outward and feet towards the centre. This was the manner common in England in King Alfred's day, thirteen centuries ago. Such poor people in the colonies as possessed tastes too luxurious to enjoy a deerskin on the earth were accustomed to fill their bed-sacks and pillows with fibrous mistletoe, the down of the cat-tail flag, or with feathers of pigeons slaughtered from the innumerable

migrating flocks. Cotton from the milk-weed, then called "silk-grass," was used for pillows and cushions.

There could perhaps be few sharper contrasts than that between such primitive accommodations and the elegance which marked the manor-houses, which were the pride of the colony. The patroons, and indeed all the landed proprietors, gloried in the solid magnificence of their household appurtenances. Mrs. Van Cortlandt has written of these fine houses very graphically: "The furniture of the well-to-do people was massive and costly and that of the plainer classes good and made to last. Large sideboards were loaded with silver beakers, tankards, candlesticks, and mugs. The latter were used at funerals to hold mulled wine. In Albany it was the custom to borrow these mugs of all the relatives and return them after the funeral filled with the fragrant compound, and doubtless this was done in Westchester. The sideboards also held inlaid mahogany boxes, which contained the spoons and forks. A cellaret of mahogany bound in brass and lined with metal was the receptacle of the wine bottles. Heavy old mahogany chairs, with leather bottoms, and massive tables, whose leaves let down, completed the furniture of the dining room. The cupboards set in the walls held china, which was often very beautiful, especially that of the favorite Lowestoft and Chinese makes. The glassware was finely cut, and some of the goblets had stems adorned with spiral threads of opaque glass. Pewter platters, plates, dishes and mugs were in daily use. The bedroom furniture embraced an enormous four-post bedstead, the posts handsomely carved and supporting a canopy or tester hung with dimity or fringed chintz curtains and a fringed valance to match. A sacking bottom was pierced at intervals with large holes, worked with coarse linen thread in button-hole stitch. Through these orifices a stout rope was inserted and drawn around the corresponding pegs in the bedstead by strong hands, and upon this foundation great feather beds were piled. In the guest chamber over the blankets and sheets was spread a white quilt, which was often a work of art, so beautifully was it quilted, and so well were the roses and tulips delineated by the needle upon its surface. The small washstands were frequently three-cornered and the ware they held was usually dark blue and white. Venetian blinds shaded the windows, and were very troublesome because of the entangling of the cords which raised and lowered them. A large stuffed chair, covered with chintz or dimity, was an indispensable piece of furniture, as was also a bright brass warming-pan. After a while great tin-plate stoves warmed the bed chambers, the Franklin stoves being reserved for the parlors and sitting rooms. The toilet table was usually of wood, in half-moon shape, the top covered with linen or muslin, beautifully quilted. I have such a cover, very artistically worked

with oak leaves and acorns. Sometimes the bed and window curtains were of chintz, worked with birds and flowers never known to nature. One set yet preserved represents Fame with a trumpet hovering over Washington, upon whose brow she is placing a laurel wreath. The curious and in some cases very beautiful blue and white counterpanes, still to be found in old houses, were woven at a factory in the interior of Westchester County. Infants were put to rest in heavy mahogany cradles which had a sort of roof extending over the head to shield the child's eyes from the light.

"The parlors or drawing-rooms were laid with Turkey carpets and round mirrors hung on the walls. They were topped with brass eagles and fitted with branches for holding the wax candles used by the rich. Other mirrors were oblong and divided by a gilt moulding about a foot and a half from the top. In some cases the upper division was of glass; but more frequently it held a picture. I have one, the upper compartment of which displays a group of military weapons, drums, etc., with a female figure mourning the death of Washington. Mantel glasses were separated into three divisions by strips of narrow gilt moulding. Small tables, with claw feet holding a ball, were used, and mahogany stands, with tops that turned; these could be placed in the corners to occupy very little room. Tall eight-day clocks in mahogany or ebony and gilt frames were found in all households of the better class. One that was stolen from the Van Cortlandt manor-house during the Revolution was cased in gilded ebony, and above its face was a painting of the Queen of Sheba, on her way to lay her gifts at the feet of King Solomon. If these big timepieces were not decorated with a figure-painting, a marine view, or a landscape, they bore the sun and moon between the dial and the top of the frame. At the entertainments of the rich the tables fairly groaned under the weight of their viands. All sorts of meats, fowl, fish, oysters and clams burdened them, while the choice wines tickled the palates of connoisseurs. Perhaps they favored none more than the renowned vintage of the south side of the island of Madeira. For a more potent drink they resorted to 'rack punch,' a concoction in which the strong arrack was the principal ingredient. Toasts were drunk at all dinners, the gentlemen proposing the ladies and the ladies the gentlemen. There was plenty of employment for sportsmen. Wild turkeys, pheasants, quail and other feathered game abounded, and Cooper tells us that as late as 1755 'nothing was easier than to knock over a buck in the Highlands.' The negroes were uniformly good shots, and used pointers and setters when hunting. The kitchen fireplaces were of huge size. A large back-log was rolled into the yawning cavity by the united power of stout men-servants, and on the massive iron andirons, hickory and other wood was

piled, while the whole fiery mass was kept in place by a heavy forestick. The iron shovel and tongs seemed fit for the use of giants. Before these leaping flames and glowing logs stood, in the morning, a ponderous tin 'Dutch oven,' on whose spear-like spit revolved a turkey, a saddle of mutton or a roast of beef. The spit was turned by one of the many little darkeys who peopled the kitchen of every great homestead. In a corner of the fireplace stood, on thick squat legs, a bake-pot, filled with a savory mess, and its iron lid covered with hot embers. From beneath the chimney piece swung the crane, whose long, horizontal arm bore a profusion of pot-hooks and trammels, from which depended innumerable pots, long-handled frying pans and other paraphernalia of the cuisine. But no kitchen utensil was more unique than the wooden bowls which the Indians fashioned from the knots of the maple trees and sold to the housekeepers. Scoured to immaculate whiteness, they had their place in every family and were highly prized.

"At Christmas and other holiday seasons the stupendous brick ovens, without which no gentleman's house could be thoroughly equipped, would be filled three times a day—first with generous loaves of wheat and rye, then with chicken and game pastries, and lastly with the succulent mince, apple and cranberry pies. A necessary labor in spring and autumn was the making or dipping of tallow candles. Six cotton wicks would be doubled over a rod, then dipped in the melted tallow and drawn between the manipulator's finger and thumb until the tallow gained some consistency. The rod was hung up while the candles dried and a second dipping and drawing finished the work. Presently some unknown genius invented a frame that held thirty-six wicks, and eight or ten such frames made the labor quick and easy of performance. Tin moulds were employed when a small supply of candles was needed, and the big box of 'dips' nearly empty. Mr. Jesse Ryder, of Ossining, says that at one time cotton was so high-priced that tow was used for wicks, and the 'dips' gave a poor light. Candlesticks for the kitchen were cut from large, square wooden blocks. 'Killing time' was a country festival. Before Christmas the oaken lard kegs and the capacious beef and pork casks were cleaned. Then the hogs and cattle were slaughtered and abundant supplies of souse, sausage, hams, jowls, bacon, pork and beef laid away. Curing occupied much time with the rude implements of the day. Sausage meat cut into half-inch pieces was thrown into wooden boxes two and a half or three feet long by ten inches deep, where men armed with spades ground to a razor-edge, chopped it into tiny fragments. By the help of a small tin tube it was packed in small linen bags, or casings, as they were called. Soap-making was an occupation of the spring. Great leach tubs standing out of doors on high frames were filled with wood ashes, on which water

was slowly poured to produce lye, and the work of soap-boiling began. To be perfect soft-soap it must be 'white as snow and thick as liver.' Matches were not known; so the tinder-box, with its flint and charred linen rag, did duty. When illness was in the household, or the nursery needed a light, a minute taper floating in a wine glass filled with sperm oil provided a faint illumination. Sperm oil lamps came into use very much later."

Old Social Life—Washington Irving brought out with fine detail many features of the old social Dutch life. In his facetious notices of New York in the early colonial days he merely made fictitious personages to move amid actual scenes. His "Knickerbocker" is made to say of the "grand parlour:" "In this sacred apartment no one was permitted to enter, excepting the mistress and her confidential maid, who visited it once a week for the purpose of giving it a thorough cleaning and putting things to rights, always taking the precaution of leaving their shoes at the door, and entering lightly on their stocking feet. After scrubbing the floor and sprinkling it with a fine white sand, which was curiously stroked into angles and curves with a broom; after washing the windows, rubbing and polishing the furniture, and putting a new bunch of evergreens in the fireplace, the window-shutters were again closed to keep out the flies, and the room carefully locked up, until the revolution of time brought round the weekly cleaning day. As to the family, they always entered in at the gate, and most generally lived in the kitchen. The fireplaces were of truly patriarchal magnitude, where the whole family, old and young, master and servant, black and white, nay even the cat and dog, enjoyed a community of privilege, and each a right to a corner. In these primitive days, a well-regulated family always rose with the dawn, dined at eleven and went to bed at sundown." Our frugal ancestors were averse, it seems, to giving dinners, but the wealthier classes, "that is to say, such as kept their own cows, and drove their own wagons," gave tea-parties. On these occasions the company assembled about three o'clock, and went away at six—even earlier in wintertime. "Knickerbocker" describes these parties:

"The tea was served out of a majestic delft tea-pot, ornamented with paintings of fat little Dutch shepherds and shepherdesses leading pigs, with boats sailing in the air, and houses built in the clouds, and sundry other ingenious Dutch fantasies. The beaux distinguished themselves by their adroitness in replenishing this pot, from a huge copper tea-kettle, which might make the beaux of the present day sweat merely to look at. To sweeten the beverage a lump of sugar was laid beside each cup, and the company alternately nibbled and sipped with great decorum." In such parties propriety and dignity of deportment pre-

vailed: "The young ladies seated themselves demurely in their rush-bottomed chairs, and knit their own woolen stockings, speaking but little, and chiefly in brief answers to questions put them, few and far between. As to the gentlemen, each of them tranquilly smoked his pipe, and seemed lost in contemplation of the blue and white tiles with which the fireplaces were decorated, wherein sundry passages of Scripture were piously portrayed."

The vesture of the people varied with their fortunes and the change from the log-cabin epoch to that of the wealthy and courtly inhabitants of the great manors. The men who first adventured into the woods learned from the Indians to wear dressed skins and moccasins, but with those of the towns and farmsteads their ambition, as well as that of their womenfolk, was to dress in the manner of "the best fashion at home." Long hair was universal in the days before periwigs. Cutting the hair short was the brand of disgrace and the mark of identification affixed to a servant who ran away before his term of indenture had expired. Puritanism was somewhat successful in its fight against long hair, but when the periwig reappeared, in the reign of Charles II, it proved too enticing for human vanity to resist. It probably succumbed at length to the very completeness of its victory. Not only men of dignity wore it, but many humbler men as well. One finds, observes one commentator, half-fed country-schoolmasters in wigs; tradesmen also proceeded to shave off their natural hair and don the mass of thread, silk, horse-hair or women's hair, with which wigs of various kinds were compounded. Apprentice lads under twenty are described in advertisements of runaways as wearing wigs; hired servants aped the quality, and transported rogues were tricked out in wigs to make them marketable." After 1750 the decline of the wig began, but the natural hair was curled, frizzled, powdered, queued and clubbed. The rage for growing the longest possible switch of hair infected all classes; sailors and boatmen wrapped in eelskin their cherished locks, and the back countryman was accustomed to preserve his by enveloping it in a piece of bear's gut dyed red, or clubbing it in a buckskin bag. Women wore the lofty "tower" or "commode" headdress, which, in the exaggeration that preceded its abolition, usually exceeded in its height the length of the face below it. The Dutch dames did not fall victims to any of the eccentricities of fashion; but with their close-fitting caps, velvet bodices, short and voluminous skirts—the muslin petticoats crisp and stiff with starch—the household keys hanging from their girdles and their capacious pockets filled with scissors, pin-cushion, and other domestic tools, made a stubborn fight against the encroachments of the female dandyisms imported from across the Atlantic. In course of time the homespun linsey became the ordinary wear in the farmers' homes, but up to

the opening of the Revolutionary epoch "My Lady of the Manor" luxuriated in costumes that rivaled the modes of the fashionable promenades in Europe. She might be a year late in adopting them, but she was not responsible for their delay in reaching her, and there are certain contemporary records which leave no doubt in the mind that she and her daughters were not backward even in adopting and continuing the ultra décolleté gowns which the Stuart Restoration made indispensable to an English fashionable woman. They embraced themselves in the cruel stays that compressed their figures into the wasp-like waist, then the object of foolish admiration, and tilted themselves forward on the pinching and high-heeled shoes, which had passed from Louis Quatorze to Charles II, and thence to the colonies. The stalwart and heroic impulses which united the colonies in their revolt against the British monarchy penetrated all classes of society, and as the crisis approached, dress became simpler and the great ladies coöperated with their husbands in representing in their own persons the economy and plainness which typified the approaching era of war and republicanism.

Knitting was an art much cultivated, the Dutch women excelling in the variety and intricacy of the stitches, according to the description of Mrs. Van Cortlandt: "A knitting sheath, which might be of silver or of homely goose-quill, was an indispensable utensil to the dame, and beside it hung a ball pin-cushion. Crewel work and silk embroidery were fashionable, and surprisingly pretty effects were produced. Every little maiden had her sampler, which she began with the alphabet and numerals, following them with a Scriptural text or verse of a metrical psalm. Then the fancy was let loose on birds, beasts and trees. Most of the old families possessed framed pieces of embroidery, the handiwork of female ancestors, some of which can stand comparison with the Kensington productions of this day. Flounces and trimmings for aprons, worked with delicately tinted silks on muslins, were common. The hand painting of strips of trimming for dresses is not a modern art. I have several yards of fine muslin painted in the early days with full-blown thistles in the appropriate colors. Fringe looms were in use and cotton and silk fringe was woven. The former was used for the fine dimity wrappers worn in the morning. These garments were trimmed with cotton inserting and a cotton cord and tassels confined them at the waist. Chintz, usually of East India manufacture, with vivid colors on a white ground, was in vogue, and made up into a sack and petticoat. Large and showy patterns of flowers and buds prevailed."

In the case of what may be called full or formal dress, brocades and moire antiques were worn. "The robe of a bride in 1748 was of moire antique with a long train, the sleeves coming to the elbow. The bosom and sleeves were trimmed with lace, headed by a narrow pinked ruffle

of the silk. The exquisitely quilted petticoat came from Holland, as did the clocked silk stockings, a present to the bride. Canton crepe, levantine, lutestring silk and other silks were worn by the ladies. Leno, a muslin with a very open mesh, was used for trimming. Dainty half handkerchiefs, with narrow embroidered borders of gold or silver thread, were worn as fichus. Powder was in general use and the hair was dressed on high rolls in front and tied behind in a sort of bag-shaped queue. Aprons, much trimmed and embroidered, were a part of the full dress, and hoops were also in vogue. Slippers of silk and kid had immensely high heels, sloping to the instep, and it is a marvel how the wearers balanced themselves. Fortunately the dance they favored was the slow and stately Minuet. Necklaces were mostly made of heavy gold beads, plain or carved. Fans were very large and handsome. Here and there in old families still are seen very beautiful chatelaines, from which hung the watch and seals. When calves were killed for family use, the skins were tanned and kept until the peripatetic shoemaker, who traveled through the country, made his annual visit, when he halted long enough to make shoes for the elders, the children and the servants. The tailoress too made yearly or semi-yearly visits and undertook to turn the homespun cloth into garments. The coming of the mantua-maker, with her European patterns, created a lively stir among the matrons and maidens. Sewing in those days was done with fine linen thread, that even yet defies time and wear to destroy it."

Among the Dutch the opulent burghers compared to their wives and daughters as the peacock does to the hen. The women's dress was sober, but the men's many coats, their silk and velvet small clothes, their silver buttons and fine linen stood for a good deal of money in each individual instance. The English colonial gentlemen did not stint themselves, but kept as close to the models of the London tailors as time and distance would permit. Lacking any other exemplar for such display, they could find one in the equipments of the British officers stationed at New York. Captain Caesar Carter, who was stationed there in 1692, was the envied possessor of a wardrobe which cost nearly a thousand dollars outside of his military accoutrements. Jacques Cosseau, a merchant who was a bankrupt before his death, in 1682, possessed but three old coats, the same number of old shirts, two pairs of worn-out breeches and one neckcloth; but Dr. Jacob De Lange, a prosperous professional gentleman, rejoiced in a wardrobe of which we possess the details, garments which would put to shame a modern dandy. Mr. Samuel Leete, clerk of the Court of Mayor and Aldermen in 1679, who is styled "a literary gentleman," was worth £23 10s in garments and furniture. Cornelius Steenwyck, "one of the principal merchants and leading citizens of New Amsterdam," who died in 1686, kept an in-

ventory of chattels in the "great chamber" of his house which has been preserved and which represents an enviable assemblage of possessions when we regard the small amount at which it was appraised. Styles grew into extravagance up to the period of the Revolution. When peacock gorgeousness prevailed men and women vied with each other in the costliness of their costumes, and sartorial sobriety was left in some families of unmixed Dutch blood. The price of good cloth, prior to the Revolution, being a guinea a yard, gentlemen of a frugal disposition would have a coat turned when it had lost its original freshness so as to make it do duty twice as long. After that it went to the servant. Mechanics, workingmen, and country people wore leather breeches, leather aprons and baize vests of red or green. The dress of a runaway apprentice is described in an advertisement of 1753: "A blue coat with black mohair buttons, blue lapelled waist-coat, the lapells lined with black velvet, a pair of black leather breeches with solid silver buttons and a brown wig." To the combrous hoops that came into fashion after the wide skirts of the ladies, succeeded the "bishop," a half circular pillow stuffed with horsehair and supposed to give more natural elegance to the figure. This in turn was superseded by the queue de Paris, an abridged edition of the "bishop," and not unlike the later "bustle." The press during all this time tried in vain to exercise its nascent power by denouncing folly. An editor gives vent to his indignation in 1754 in the following outburst:

"These foreign invaders first made their attack upon the stays, so as to diminish them half down the waist, exposing the breast and shoulders. Next to the caps; cut off the flappets and tabs, pored and padlocked the ears. Next came the wide hoops and French pocket holes; and last of all have lately shortened the rear, so that the heels and ankles are exposed, even to the very gusset and clock! O shame! shame!" Ladies' shoes at the time were of calfskin, with a white band of sheepskin attached to the top. This was a neat dress shoe.

In the matter of bonnets and hats the shapes for a long time were far from graceful. The prettiest was the "Skimmer" hat, made of some shining material like silver tinsel, with a flat crown and large brim; the "horsehair" bonnet was very light, but stiff; the bath-bonnet, made upon the principle of the modern gentleman's crush hat, was more becoming than the mush-melon bonnet, ribbed and stiff-looking, which was in use just before the Revolution; the whalebone bonnet was an improvement upon the last-named; it was stiffened only in front. The calash bonnet was made of green silk and so constructed that it could be folded back like the top of a calash or gig when the wearer went indoors. The "wagon" was a black silk affair with the shape of a wagon top, and at first used exclusively by the Quaker ladies. However, as it

was from its shape an excellent protection from the sun's rays, many ladies in the country adopted it, making it of some light material trimmed with gay ribbons. The only straw bonnet mentioned during a long period was the "bee-hive," worn by old ladies. A large, white, flat beaver was once worn with scarcely any crown, and fastened under the chin by two strings. The only kind of wrap used by the ladies was the loose cloak which with slight alterations in the cut went by the name of roquelaure, capuchin, and cardinal. After the Revolution the influence of French fashions was felt throughout the Republic. American women wore the limpskirted, short-waisted dress of the dames du Directoire about the time that their husbands and beaux, having discarded the long-cherished queue, wore their hair closecropped, a la Brutus. Parasols came in fashion late; as well as umbrellas. Men wore "raincoats" and women "camblets," for protection against the weather. Watson says the first umbrellas were carried by British officers, and were deemed effeminate by the people. Yet in an old advertisement of 1769 a milliner proposes, in addition to her regular modish business, to "cover umbrellas in the neatest manner;" so that useful article must have become the custom already at that time. Ladies careful of their complexion at one period wore a black velvet mask in winter, "with a silver mouthpiece to keep it on by retaining in the mouth." Rather an inconvenient arrangement and one that compelled silence, it has been remarked. The earliest kind of watches worn in the colony had cases of shagreen, turtle shell, or pinchbeck. After that the finest gentleman was content to carry a silver watch. The first gold watches were an article of jewelry, becoming only to wealthy and fashionable ladies. Old gentlemen at the close of the eighteenth century carried a tall, gold-headed cane, and generally a gold snuff box, from which they were ever ready to offer a sociable pinch to an acquaintance. They held on to the very last against the abolishment of the queue, or pig-tail, and clung to the large silver buttons, which were once a mark of wealth and dignity. These buttons were often made of coins—quarter dollars being used for the coat and "eleven-penny bits" for the vests and breeches. Spectacles were rarely used, even by the aged; a young man or woman wearing glasses was something unheard of.

Manners in Revolutionary Period—The period of storm and stress that embraced the period of the Revolutionary War and the ushering in of new ideals brought about a greater simplicity of manners. The "coarse" element came in afterwards when the power of money began to be felt. The Duke de la Rochefoucauld Liancourt, writing about the social life of the Americans some time after the Revolution, says: "Luxury is very high there, especially at New York and Philadelphia,

and makes a dangerous progress every year. . . There are some persons who surpass their neighbors already too far advanced in luxury; these injure the manners of the country." He adds that luxury is much less prevalent in the country towns, but is continually increasing, and often out of proportion with wealth. The same writer summarizes his views in the following two paragraphs—the first is less a criticism than a correct explanation of the absence of an idle, refined society; the second, a just homage paid the American people and a prophetic view of the future greatness of the country:

> An European coming into the new world, and bringing with him the need of the usage of the politer attentions of that which he has quitted; he above all who brings with him the need of what we call in France the charms of society, which we know so well how to appreciate, and of which we know how to participate, and which affords us so many moments of happiness, such a man will not find himself satisfied in America, and his recollections will be continually sprinkling his life with melancholy. He cannot, if his heart has an occasion for a friend, hope to find there the sweetness of a constant and avowed friendship.
>
> The inhabitants of the United States have been hitherto too much engaged in their respective occupations for the enticements of polished society to be able to withdraw their attention from them; they have not the leisure to consecrate to friendship. Such an European ought to have for a long time forgotten Europe in order to live quite happy in America. But if he can readily lose the remembrance of it, or take with him there the dearest objects of his affection, he will lead in America a happy and tranquil life. He will there enjoy the blessing of liberty in the greatest extent which it is possible to desire in any polished country. He will see himself with an active people, easy in their circumstances and happy. Every day will bring him to observe a new progress of this new country. He will see it every day take a step toward that strength and greatness to which it is called; towards that real independence which is for a nation the result of having the means of satisfying itself.

The well-to-do people of the province were liberal patrons of art. Very many of them had been educated in the European schools, and in the vast collections of the Old World had learned to know a good painting, a meritorious marble, a fine bit of porcelain or glass, or anything commendable in the way of decoration and bric-a-brac. They encouraged native genius and were tolerant of its crudities. In the manor-houses along the Hudson were works of John Trumbull, Charles Wilson Peale, Gilbert Stuart, Thomas Sully, Washington Allston, and other American painters. The social atmosphere of these houses possessed a warmth and refinement that were favorable to artistic appreciation. Painters were welcome guests within their walls. Peale made excursions into this region and Sully visited the home of Governor Daniel D. Tompkins to obtain sittings for the admirable portrait which he produced of the statesman. The well-to-do element kept large amounts of money in their houses. In 1774 a lady, who died in New

York, owned estates in Westchester County and the executor's inventory showed that she had sums amounting to £6,593 19s 8d in cash. How amply furnished were the old-time houses is shown in the inventory of property removed in 1776 from a house in the Neutral Ground of Westchester County. There was, however, one class of settlers as sharply distinguished in their social life as in their language and nativity from the Dutch and the English. These were the Huguenots, the French Protestant exiles, who came into the county so early in its history and gave to their settlement the name of New Rochelle, in memory of the ancient French city which had been the European home of a great many of them. Some of them were well educated, and most were skilled artisans. Of the first house which they built the Rev. L. J. Coutant has given a graphic description. It was erected upon the point later known as Hudson's Park. Mr. Coutant writes:

"During the pleasant weather of the autumnal months (circa 1690), a house was built on Bonnefoy's Point—not a very commodious one, nor yet very elegant in its architectural design. An excavation was made in the earth to the depth of five or six feet, and faced around with stones, after the manner of building cellar walls at the present day, preparatory to the erection of the superstructure. On these stone walls logs were laid in successive tiers, until a height was reached sufficient to make one story above ground and a large garret for a sleeping apartment. The whole was roofed over with long grass, bound firmly onto the rafters with strong cords, interlaced with poles running lengthwise of the roof; so that this primitive dwelling, with the exception of its cellar walls or ground work, was nothing more or less than a thatching house. The work of building this edifice was accomplished by the voluntary and united labor of the whole colony—men and women both doing what they could to hasten its completion.

"Incidents peculiarly interesting cluster round this primitive cottage. It was a joint-stock possession—a common property, in which all had an interest—a sort of headquarters, a public house indeed, to which the settlers nightly resorted for social intercourse or recreation when the toils and adventures of the day were over. On the Sabbath it was the temple whither the settlers went up to worship and listen to the religious instructors of the pious Bonrepas, their beloved pastor, and to join in the raptures inspired by the singing of Marot's hymns. It is surprising to see what expedients necessity will adopt; into how narrow a compass it will compress the proprieties of life, both civil and religious; how few and simple are the requirements of society and genuine religion, when stripped of the conventional superfluities bestowed by pride and wealth. In this same house the first child was born, to one Louis Guion, and there the first Huguenot marriage took place, the

groom Jean Coutant, and the bride the daughter of David Bonnefoy. The marriage ceremony was performed by the Right Rev. David de Bonrepas, who united in his ministerial functions the several offices of bishop, priest and presbyter to the French Protestant Church at New Rochelle."

Domestic Economy Among Huguenots—In respect to the social characteristics and domestic economy of the early Huguenots who formed an important element in the population of the territory now embraced by the Borough of The Bronx Mr. Coutant remarks:

"Not in former times, as now, were the families in country villages or districts dependent on the butcher's stalls for the daily supply of their table, nor yet upon the bakers' shops and the flour merchants for bread and pastry. These staples of life, as well as their wearing apparel, were furnished upon their own premises. Their cereals were gathered from their fields, threshed and winnowed upon their own barn floors, and carried to the mill in bags to be converted in flour, which was kneaded and baked by the good matrons, in the old-fashioned brick ovens, constructed in the immense kitchen chimney-backs. And as to pastry, all of it, not even excepting wedding cake, was prepared in the same way. Their herds of kine and flocks of sheep, grazing upon their pasture fields, and the poultry in their barn-yards supplied them with fresh meat, butter and eggs the whole year round. The writer himself, although not as old as some men whom he knows, can well remember the time when a single small cow or a young steer, slaughtered once a week, sufficed to supply the families of New Rochelle and East Chester with all the fresh meat that was needed, over and above that raised on their own premises. Thus a thrifty farmer in the early summer or spring would slaughter a calf, sheep or lamb and, reserving what was required for his own use, send the rest to his neighbors, until they in turn did the same thing; and thus the supply was mutual and alternate. This policy was frequently adopted also upon the recurrence of a stone, or ploughing 'frolic,' as they were called, or upon the raising of a barn or some other heavy-timbered building, on which occasions a supply of good old Jamaica rum acted as a sort of steam power, and at night the affair was often concluded by a liberal supply of lamb or veal pot-pie and generous potations of cider.

"The cellar of the well-to-do farmer was his larder; being fully stocked with barrels of salted meat and hogsheads of cider, as also of potatoes, turnips, butter, lard and such other provisions as were needful for family use. Even mechanics, carpenters, shoemakers, weavers, tailors, coopers, and blacksmiths had each his acre of land, cow and fatted pig, and whatever they lacked of other provisions they had no

difficulty in obtaining by an exchange of labor for farmers' products, at the rate of four dollars per hundred weight of beef, eighteen cents per bushel for potatoes, fifty cents a barrel for apples, seventy-five cents a bushel for wheat, fifty cents for rye, and not more than thirty-six cents a bushel for Indian corn, and other produce in proportion; while the wages of the laboring man ranged from fifty to eighty dollars a year, with board, and from fifty to seventy-five cents a day. The wages of mechanics were from seventy-five cents to one dollar a day, if boarded, and from one dollar to a dollar and twenty-five cents where they boarded themselves. Carpenters, wheelwrights and blacksmiths were employed upon many of the utensils of husbandry in those days to which they are strangers at the present time. The former made the farmer's ox-sleds, plows, harrows, cider-mills, crackles and other implements for working in flax; the latter forged his plow-shares, colters, chains and crowbars. The manufacture of flax and wool-spinning wheels was usually done by cabinetmakers and turners, which class of mechanics was far from numerous. The turning was performed on the old-fashioned pole lathe.

"The dress worn by men consisted of pantaloons, vest and coat; the latter trimmed with large brass buttons, and an overcoat, or, as it was then called, a match-coat, a wool hat made very much in the form of the felt hats worn at the present day; laced or low-quartered shoes, and woolen, home-knit stockings. These garments as a general thing constituted a gentleman's wardrobe or outfit for the winter. In summer, linen was usually worn. The ordinary dress worn by elderly women was the old-style short-gown and petticoats, of homespun or linsey woolsey. When they went abroad, however, this was generally exchanged for a short-waisted gown of the same material in winter; but in summer of some lighter fabric. Those who could afford it occasionally wore silk. The head-dress consisted of a cap with a wide border and high crown, over which, when abroad, they wore a plain silk bonnet. The young women wore frocks of a similar style and material, but no caps. Their long tresses were parted in front, combed back and braided into a cue; rolled up spirally upon the back of the head, and secured by a huge turtle-shell or horn-comb. Small side combs were also used to keep the hair evenly parted in front. The shape of their hats varied constantly, as now, in accordance with the fickle dictates of fashion. At one time it would be a fur cap, somewhat like that worn by men at the present time, but trimmed with ribbons and ornamented with feathers, white or black, according to the fancy of the wearer. At another, the hat would flatten down and spread out into an immense disk of braided leghorn or straw, held in place by a broad ribbon tied under the chin. Presently, almost while we are yet gazing

in admiration, they assumed the form of an immense tin scoop in front, projecting beyond the face some ten or twelve inches, with high crowns to make room for the large comb.

"Strange as it may seem, all of these, to us, outlandish costumes and fashions looked well in their time. Boys, until grown-up, mostly went barefooted; nor was it at all uncommon to see grown-up men pursuing their occupations without shoes upon their feet. All, of course, wore shoes and yarn stockings in winter. Moreover, the young man who could afford a pair of calf-skin boots with white or red sheep-skin tops was regarded with admiration by the belles of the town. He was a rare bird indeed and likely to become the target for the arrows of the mischievous blind deity. All the more so, if these ornamental appendages supported a trim, symmetrical form, attired in buff colored corduroy pantaloons, white vest, a blue broadcloth swallow-tailed coat, trimmed with glistening brass buttons, the collar extending high in back of the neck, and the tail reaching to within a foot of the floor; the whole surmounted with a high, bell-crowned beaver hat:

> Attired in this most marvellous array,
> Thus walked and talked the dandy of his day.

"In these early times, the children in the farming districts were early taught habits of industry, the boys going to school in winter, and assisting in the work of the farm in summer and autumn. At the age of sixteen one or more of them would be put out to learn a trade, and bound by indentures to serve five years as apprentices. The girls meanwhile, while attending the district school, assisted their mother in household duties, and indeed some of them did not hesitate to help at an emergency in the out-door work upon the farm—in such light occupations as stirring and raking hay and pulling flax. Nor by so doing did they at all lose caste or compromise their claims to gentility. Almost every young man at the age of twenty-one was familiar with the processes of farming, supplemented frequently by the knowledge of some mechanical employment. At the age of sixteen the girls had a practical acquaintance with the business of housekeeping in all its branches. Although not put to a trade, yet before they arrived at eighteen years of age they may be said to have learned at least one trade, at home. They were thoroughly proficient in the art of spinning and making up homespun fabrics. But although thus early trained to habits of industry, and to contribute their share of labor towards the support of the family, the young people of both sexes were by no means deprived of amusements. They had their holiday seasons and afternoon and evening sports. They enjoyed in winter skating and riding down hill, and spinning tops, flying kites and playing ball in the spring; and a great many other

athletic games and innocent amusements which are now obsolete and forgotten. There is yet one more phase of domestic and social life among the early settlers of this part of the country and their immediate descendants which ought not to be passed over entirely without notice, as it is one most intimately connected with human welfare and happiness in this our earthly lot. I refer to the subject of courtship and marriage. In those times the marriage of young people was the rule and not the exception. At all events the practice was, as it seems to me, much more general than at the present time; and there was a good reason for it. Marriage did not then demand, on the part of one or both of the parties to it, the possession of an independent fortune! Love and marriage on the contrary came first and a reasonable amount of wordly success afterwards. To this, mutual industry and economy contributed. The endless ceremony, parade and lavish expenditure of time and money upon bridal costumes, trousseaus and wedding tours were unknown to the simplicity of those times. If it had not been so the costly paraphernalia of a wedding would have driven the young lovers of that day into the despair of hopeless celibacy. Mutual happiness and success in life, and not idle vanity or foolish display, were then supposed to be the true and proper inducements to matrimony. Such alliances were more easily and naturally formed too from the fact that population was less transient than now. That is to say, families more frequently lived during their entire lives upon estates which had descended from father to son through several generations. Weddings too, even among families of some wealth, were very simple affairs. They took place at the residence of the bride's parents—usually in the evening. The ceremony was invariably performed by a minister, in the presence of a few of the relatives and friends, and was followed by a season of festivity and merriment. For the newly-married couple to set up housekeeping cost but a trifle. For twenty-five dollars a year two rooms could be procured sufficiently ample for a modest beginning. For as much more, they could be furnished with all that was needful for housekeeping in the way of furniture, etc., the wife, as a general thing, providing beds, bedding, and such carpets as she had been able to manufacture as the fruit of her own handiwork and industry; so that the entire outlay, in cash, for the first year, over and above what was provided by the parents, would not, perhaps, exceed one hundred dollars, rent included. These facts refer, of course, to successful marriages—that is, to the great majority. For the few failures want of sufficient previous acquaintances of the parties (a thing by no means so common then as now) or improvident habits were chiefly accountable. The state of society I have been attempting to describe was that which existed in New Rochelle and Pelham from

seventy-six to one hundred years ago; and indeed much earlier, for the habits and customs of the generation which preceded the War of the Revolution were substantially the same with those of their immediate descendants."

Early Material Progress—Settling in a country where water-courses were so numerous the early Dutch did most of their travelling on the North River or the Sound and its tributary streams. The periauger was in constant use for water transportation, Charlevoix calls it pirogue, a canoe formed of the trunk of a tree, while Cooper, in the "Water Witch," says: "It partook of a European and an American character; it possessed the length, narrowness and clean bow of the canoe, from which its name was derived, and the flat bottom and lee boards of a boat constructed for the shallow waters of the low countries." Mrs. Van Cortlandt says: "Sloops did a great business in carrying passengers, their leisurely movements quite suiting the quiet tourists of those days." "The very rich had for state occasions their coach drawn by four stout horses of Flemish blood, with coachman and outriders in appropriate liveries. Such equipages, however, were few in number and attracted great attention when upon the road. Box wagons, guiltless of springs, were owned by some farmers, but for easy travel a good horse was preferred, the man riding in front and the wife or daughter behind upon a pillion. Physicians needed and bestrode stout nags, always carrying saddle-bags and the few simple surgical instruments then known. The infallible lancet was stored in their big pocketbook, as at least once a year, usually in the spring, 'a good bleeding' was deemed a necessity. Blooded horses were not scarce, for many of the gentry kept racing stables. In winter the people rode about in huge sleighs, some of which were of great length and had covers, half-extending over them. The horses were decked with a profusion of brass bells strung upon leather straps. When the youths and maidens went for long drives they carried foot-stoves—a tin box pierced with holes and set in a wooden frame, and enclosing an iron cup filled with hot embers."

The quarter of a century following the achievement of national independence was a period fraught with mechanical inventions that imparted a powerful stimulus to the material progress of the country. The steam-engine was being vastly improved, the application of the newly-discovered power to milling and manufacturing was making rapid progress, and the locomotive and steamboat were taking shape in the minds of Oliver Evans, Stephenson, Rumsey, Fitch and Fulton. In 1803 Oliver Evans had begun to build steam-engines in Philadelphia, and in 1813 published an article in which he claimed that in 1773 he had suggested steam as a motor on land, and in 1778 had proposed its

application to boats. In 1804 he built a machine for cleaning docks, and propelled it by its own engine overland to the Schuylkill River, where he launched it into the stream, fixed a paddle-wheel to it and navigated it around the Delaware. He proposed to construct a steam road carriage for freight, at a cost of two thousand five hundred dollars, that would transport one hundred barrels of flour, at the speed of two miles an hour, and successfully endeavored to enlist the Philadelphia and Columbia Turnpike Company in his project. He unquestionably had worked out the idea of the steamboat and locomotive in his mind, but the world laughed at him when he predicted that "the time would come when people will travel in stages moved by steam-engines from one city to another almost as fast as the birds can fly—fifteen or twenty miles an hour." Soon after the close of the Revolution James Rumsey propelled a boat by steam on the Potomac River in the presence of a party of observers, one of whom was Washington, who certified to what Rumsey had accomplished. The Rumsey Society, of which Benjamin Franklin was president, was formed to aid him, and there ensued a sharp controversy for priority of invention between Rumsey and John Fitch. The latter had in July, 1786, experimented on the Delaware with a steamer moved by upright paddles, fitted at the gunwales, but his first successful boat was operated in July, 1788. He changed the paddles to the stern of the craft, where they worked nearly as well as a wheel. Fitch is believed to have invented the first double-acting condensing engine, transmitting power by means of cranks, produced in any country. He took his boat to New York and exhibited it on the Collect, where it was finally beached and abandoned to decay. In 1804 John C. Stevens, of Hoboken, New Jersey, constructed a steamboat on the Hudson that was driven by a Watts engine, with a tubular boiler of his own invention and a screw propeller. Chancellor Livingston and Nicholas Roosevelt were interested in this undertaking, which was a failure, as the machinery shook the boat to pieces. It was reserved for Robert Fulton to make of the steamboat a practical and commercial success. Backed by Chancellor Livingston's money he built in New York in 1806 a steamer which he named the "Clermont," the title of the Livingston country seat. She was one hundred and thirty feet in length, eighteen in width, seven in depth, and of one hundred and sixty tons burden. Her engine was bought from Watt & Boulton. On Friday, August 7, 1807, she started on her first voyage to Albany, and reached there in thirty hours, an average for the one hundred and fifty miles of five miles an hour. In September she began running regularly for the accommodation of the public, making the round trip in seventy-two hours, for which each passenger was charged fourteen dollars. Livingston had already received from the Legislature the grant of the

exclusive privilege of navigating the waters of New York by steam, and Fulton was admitted as sharer in this franchise. Before the War of 1812 they had built six steamboats for traffic on the Hudson and ferriage in New York harbor.

From the evidence in our possession it would appear that there were in the whole State in 1796 thirty-eight coaches, seventy-three chariots, five post-chaises, ninety-one phaetons, seventy-two coaches, one hundred and three "other four-wheeled carriages" and one thousand five hundred and twenty-six curricles, chaises, top-chairs, steel-spring-chairs, sulkies, and wooden-spring chairs. "The light open chair, or the covered chaise," writes one commentator, "was generally preferred. These were better suited to the roughness and sinuosity of the roads than the coach. The chaise was a kind of two-wheeled gig, having a top, and sometimes drawn by one and sometimes by two horses; the chair had two wheels, but no top; the sulky, which was much used, differed from the chair chiefly in having room for but one person. Ladies took delight in driving about alone in open chairs, to the amazement of European travelers, who deemed that a paradise in which women could travel without protection." These luxuries of travel were of later date than the time when the Indian trail known as "The Old Westchester Path" was the principal thoroughfare between New York and New England. In 1683 the ferryman of Long Island kept "two boats for cattle and horses and also two boats for passengers." The ferriage for the former was 6d a head and for the latter 1d. The Dutch yachts so-called were from one to two weeks in a voyage to Hudson and Albany, or Albania, as it was then called. They came to every night, preferring ease to speed, and traveled only by daylight. All on board spoke Dutch. In 1673 the post or messenger was instructed to apply to the Governors for "the best direction how to form the best Post-Road;" to establish places on the road where to leave the way-letters, and "to mark some Trees that shall direct Passengers the best way, and to fix certain Houses for your several stages both to bait and lodge at." The messenger was to provide himself with "a spare horse, a Horn, and good Portmantles." Travelers who wished to avail themselves of the messenger's company were permitted to do so, and he was instructed to afford them the best help in his power. Miss Sarah Knight of Boston came to New York in 1704 on a visit to some friends. She availed herself of the guidance and protection of the postrider, and made the journey on horseback in two weeks. Her journal, printed for private circulation, contains graphic and quaint descriptions, and reveals a shrewd observer of men and things. It has proved of inestimable value to all writers about the olden time. She gives the reader an idea of the hardships of travel in those days—

hardships bravely borne, in 1702, by another lady, Mrs. Shippen, who travelled from Boston to Philadelphia on horseback, carrying a baby on her lap. We get here also an insight into the primitive postal system: "Tuesday, October ye third, about 8 in the morning, I with the Post proceeding forward . . and about 2, afternoon, arrived at the Post's second stage, where the western Post met him and exchanged letters . . Having here discharged the Ordinary for self and guide, as I understood was the custom, about 3, afternoon, went on with my third guide, who rode very hard; and having crossed Providence ferry, we come to a River which they generally ride through. But I dare not venture, so the Post got a lad and canoe to carry me to the other side, and he rid through and led my horse. Rewarding my scullar, again mounted and made the best of my way forward. The road here was very even and ye day pleasant, it being now near sunset. But the Post told me we had near 14 miles to ride to the next Stage, where we were to lodge. I asked him of the rest of the road, foreseeing we must travel in the night. He told me there was a bad river to ride through, which was so very fierce a horse could sometimes hardly stem it; but it was narrow, and we should soon be over."

Early Post and Stage Coaches—The postoffice plan for the colonies was first devised in the year 1700 by Colonel J. Hamilton, of New Jersey, and son of Governor Andrew Hamilton. He obtained a patent and the profits accruing, which he afterwards sold to the Crown. The first regular postoffice established in the colonies by Parliament was in 1710. The chief office for North America was established in New York. The necessity for increased postal facilities had been represented to the British Government in 1704, by the Governor of the province of New York, who wrote that "the post that goes through this place goes eastward as far as Boston; but westward he goes no farther than Philadelphia; and there is no other post upon all this continent." As late as the year 1810 the mail between Canandaigua and Genesee River was carried on horseback—part of the time by a woman. In 1730 the postmaster of New York published a notice inviting application for the office of foot-post to Albany this winter. Letters to distant places, however, were generally carried by messengers on horseback. At first a satchel or pair of saddle-bags sufficed; then a light vehicle was required; finally the stage coaches, which were first started for the benefit of travellers, became the proper means of transportation for the ever-increasing mail-matter. Until 1755 there had been but one a week, eastward and westward from New York—Boston and Philadelphia being still the extreme points—and this only in the summer. Once a fortnight was the winter arrangement. In 1755 it was arranged that

the New England post should start weekly all the year round. When this post was first established in 1672 by Governor Lovelace it was to "sett forth from this city of New Yorke monthly, and thence to travail to Boston, from whence within that Month hee shall return againe to this citty." An independent postoffice was established in New York in 1775 at the suggestion of William Goddard, the publisher of the "Maryland Journal," and John Holt, the New York printer, was appointed postmaster. There is no doubt that the "Sons of Liberty," a popular association of Americans, were connected with this movement; for one of the first acts of its members was to send through this office threatening letters to the leading members of the Tory party. James Rees, who wrote "Foot-prints of a Letter-Carrier," observes: "Nor was it until 1732 that the first stage-route to Philadelphia was established; stages also departed for Boston monthly, taking a fortnight on the route." Advertisements of that year mentioned the departure of the post "in order to perform his stage," but we find no reference to "stage-wagons" or "stage-coaches" before 1756, when the first stage-coach was announced to run between Philadelphia and New York "three days through." In 1753 William Vandrills informed "gentlemen and others who have a mind to transport themselves, wares or merchandise from New York to Philadelphia" that he had "fitted a stage boat," which "will sail from New York to Amboy and thence by wagons to Burlington, and thence take passage to Philadelphia." In 1765 a rival of the "first Stage-Coach" put on the line a "covered Jersey wagon"—an improvement, it seems, on the other "coach." Competition was aroused and in the following year (1766) a third stage, yclept "The Flying-Machine," proposed to make the trip in two days, and allured travelers with the promise of "good wagons and seats on springs." The through fare was twenty shillings. When the capital of the province had accomplished no more during a century as regards traveling facilities, it could hardly be expected that Westchester County was able to boast of superior accommodations. Public travel was in its infancy; the hardy colonist bestrode his good horse and started on a distant journey with no more concern than we board a railroad train nowadays. After the Revolution, however, there was a marked and general improvement. A stage line was begun in 1785 between New York and Albany. In 1787 stage communication with Boston was had three times a week in summer and twice a week in winter, and the towns in Westchester County had a stage from New York City every other day. It will easily be understood that the mails did not carry tons of printed matter, as in our time. The first newspaper printed in New York was the "New York Gazette," a weekly, established by William Bradford in 1725. It was printed on a half sheet of foolscap

and the type was large and much worn. The first daily paper, "The New York Daily Advertiser," published by F. Child & Company, only made its appearance in 1785. Westchester had no newspaper until after the Revolution, but its people not only read the New York journals, but also advertised in them. Here are some advertisements inserted by people in Rye, and preserved in Baird's history of that town:

Oct. 23, 1749. Wm. Burtus, Hat-Maker, Now living at Harrison's Purchase, in Rye, carries on the Hatter's Trade there, and makes and sells as good Hats as any in this Province, for ready Money, or short Credit.

Wm. Burtus.

July 3, 1775. Stolen out of the pasture from the subscriber at Rye the 21st June 1775, a sorrel mare, about 14 hands high, a natural trotter, marked with a ball face, her main hanging on the near side, four year old. Any person that will apprehend the thief and mare, so that the owner can have his mare again, shall be paid the sum of five pounds, and for the mare only three pounds paid by me.

William Lyon.

July 1, 1771. Capt. Abraham Bush, of Rye, in the province of New York, on a voyage from the eastward, bound home, coming out of Milford harbour, in Connecticut, Sunday morning the 14th day of last April, about three hours after his departure, saw (above half sound over towards Long Island) a wreck . . . which he brought into Rye harbour. Any person proving his property in said scow and boom, by applying himself to said Bush, in Rye, may have them again, paying him for his trouble and the charge he hath been put to.

Abraham Bush.

Education and Beliefs—In respect to the province of education, facilities in that line, as may be supposed, were not very great while the country was thinly settled. The mother was often the only teacher, and the Bible the first text-book. In the city, the schoolmaster was always ex-officio clerk, chorister, and visitor of the sick. The catechism was taught in Dutch in New Amsterdam and Westchester by these hard-worked pedagogues. As the population increased very good schools were established. Westchester County had several, principally under the direction of some of the Huguenot immigrants, some of whom had much of the education of the time. Books were few in the early days and there was little to develop literary taste, but the Dutch were not illiterate. There must have been a peculiar meaning in the singular custom existing among the Dutch families of that period, of the father giving a bundle of goose quills to his son and telling him to give one to each of his male posterity. Watson saw one which had a scroll appended saying, "This quill, given by Petrus Byvanck to James Bogert, in 1789, was a present in 1689 from his grandfather from Holland." As early as 1690 the people of one part of Westchester County made an effort to produce a schoolmaster and in many of the towns the proprietors offered the privileges of a school to all who would contribute toward the erection of a schoolhouse. The English Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts included the tuition of youth

in its programme of proselytism and established teachers at various points in the county. The best educational advantages were enjoyed by that section of the county formerly a part of Connecticut, as that colony rivalled Massachusetts in its care for the instruction of the young. In New York no provision was made for a general system of education before the Revolution. Whatever was done for this interest was done by individuals or religious bodies.

It would appear that the inhabitants of Westchester County in the old days were not more free from superstition that their neighbors. In 1672 a number of inhabitants in the valley of the Bronx complained to the governor and council that "witch had come among them from Hartford, where she had been before imprisoned and condemned." The woman was removed. A similar complaint was made in 1673; "but the Military Governor, Captain Colve, a son of the ocean, not under this land influence perhaps, treated it as idle or superstitious, and so dismissed the suit." A man and his wife, similarly accused, in 1665, had not got off so easily. They were tried and found guilty. Belief in witchcraft was not at all uncommon in those days in Europe as well as in the colonies.

Labor and Slaves—The agricultural labor of the pioneers was well rewarded in results. The soil was adapted to the cultivation of wheat, corn, rye, and other cereals; to peaches, apples, cherries, and the various berries; and to the most abundant pasturage. Every farmer kept sheep and had his wool spun in his own house. The weaving was done by men, who kept and worked small hand-looms in their houses. Blankets, sheetings, and coarse cloths were produced in very considerable quantities. Much flax was raised and was also spun at the firesides of the people, where the hum of the large and small wheels sounded through the day and evening. The linen was of remarkable excellence. Tablecloths and napkins, woven in diamonds and squares, were as smooth and glossy as satin, while the sheeting was fine, even-threaded and most durable. Every farm had a woodlot in which the men-servants exercised their thews in preparing the immense logs for the gaping fireplaces that daily swallowed fuel by the cord. They also cut chestnut rails for the zigzag fences that took the place of stone walls in regions where trees were more numerous than boulders. Most of the farm labor was performed by negro and Indian slaves, between whom and their masters the kindliest relations existed, as a rule. These bondsmen identified themselves with the families in which they were raised, and exhibited a pride and importance, it is said, sometimes not excelled by their masters. "It is not easy," Cooper makes Miles Wallingford say, "to describe the affection of an attached slave, which has blended with it the pride of a partisan, the solicitude of a parent, and the blindness

of a lover." A common custom among the Dutch was to assign to each child in the household, when it had reached six or eight years, a slave of the same age and sex, who clung to the little master or mistress with an affection that was fully returned and in many instances lasted through life. There is a fact connected with the institution of slavery in the colony of New York which is too honorable to the inhabitants to be omitted here, for in no section was it more true than in Westchester and the valley of the Bronx. The slaves lived under the same roof and partook of the same food as their masters; they were allowed much familiarity and indulged in great freedom of speech. Captain Graydon, who was quartered at Flatbush while a prisoner in the War of the Revolution, testifies to this: "Their blacks, when they had them," he writes, "were very free and familiar; sometimes sauntering among the whites at meal-time, with hat on head, and freely joining occasionally in conversation, as if they were one and all of the same household." Yet, observes Watson, "no case had ever occurred of 'amalgamation,' and no instance of mixed color had been seen until produced by some in the British army coming among them. The first instance of the kind produced emotions of surprise and dislike." The Dutch settlers in Westchester obtained their first African slaves under the "Freedoms and Exemptions" granted by the West India Company in 1629, which promised that to all planters of colonies in the New Netherland "the company will use their endeavors to supply the Colonists with as many Blacks as they conveniently can; in such manner, however, that they shall not be bound to do it for a longer time than they shall think proper." In 1644 Nicholas Toorn, of Rensselaerswyck, acknowledged the receipt of a young black girl, to be returned at the end of four years, "if yet alive," to the director-general or his successor. The average price of slaves was one hundred dollars in our money each for men and two hundred dollars for women. The treatment of the slaves was on the whole humane, it would appear. In 1644 an ordinance was passed which emancipated those who had served the company eighteen or nineteen years on condition of a yearly small payment in wheat, peas, beans, and hogs, but a failure to comply with the conditions involved a return of the laggard to slavery. In 1683 the General Assembly provided penalties for selling any commodity to any slave and for any person buying from them or giving them credit. The same enactment included a rigid fugitive slave law and commanded all constables and inferior officers "to press men, horses, boats or pinnaces to pursue" runaway slaves "by sea or land, and to make diligent hue and cry, as by the law required." Labor statutes permitted masters to punish slaves with any chastisement not extending to life or member; forbade the assemblage of more than three slaves; ordered that the children of

slave women should be slaves; that each town or manor might have a whipper of slaves; that any slave presuming to strike any Christian or Jew should be committed to prison and suffer corporal punishment; forbade the harboring of slaves; provided that every master or the executor of a will freeing a slave should give two hundred pounds security that such slave should not become a public charge and that the owners of slaves executed for murder, arson or other terrible crimes should be paid for them. The traffic in slaves began to decline in 1718, and in 1723 there were but six thousand, one hundred and seventy-one in the province. In 1755 there were but seventy-three held in Westchester County. Slavery ceased in the State of New York under the law of 1817, which enacted that every "negro, mulatto, or mustee within this State, born before the 4th day of July, 1790, shall, from and after the 4th day of July, 1827, be free."

Early Customs—A custom brought over from Europe by the early settlers and worth mentioning was the investiture "by turff and twigg." It consisted in the delivery of a turf, a stone, a branch or some other object, as a symbol of the transfer of the soil. Anciently this had been practiced by the feudal lord in conferring a fief upon his vassal. It was observed on Manursing Island in 1693, and at Budd's Neck, with all due formality as late as 1768. In a dispute between Samuell Odell and the heirs of Jonathan Vowles about the southernmost part of the island, John Frost testified that in 1693 he went, by request of Vowles, to the said island, "where he did see Jonathan Vowles... cut a turff upon the same, as also cut a stick or twigg thereon; and the said Jonathan Vowles did then and there deliver the said turff and twigg to the said Samuel Odel, who desired this deponent to take notice that Jonathan Vowles did put him in full and peaceable possession." The life of the early settlers was marked by simplicity and naturalness in their social relations. Their out-door amusements were of the kind that promoted vigorous bodies. The Dutch skated on the frozen streams in winter, as they had done in Holland, while those of the English who had the means indulged in riding and hunting. As in all new countries women were in the minority; the demand exceeded the supply, the woman is described as usually destined to be an "incorrigible old maid" who succeeded in passing her twentieth year without finding a husband. The marriage festival was an event to which friends and neighbors from all the country round were bidden; much ale and liquor was drunk and the dancing was kept up the night through. There does not, however, seem to have been the strictest morality observed concerning the relations of men and women, for on January 5, 1658, the Council of the New Netherlands issued a very stringent order against those who had their banns published and then had not had the ceremony performed.

It was ordained that "all persons whose banns have been published, after the third proclamation shall have been made and no lawful impediment occurring, shall cause their marriage to be solemnized at the longest within one month after the last proclamation, or, within the said term, to appear and render in his reasons for his refusal, as it behooves him; and this under the penalty of ten guilders for the first week after the expiration of said month, and for the succeeding weeks twenty guilders for each week, until the time he shall have made known the reason for his refusal. Furthermore no male and female shall be permitted to cohabit before they shall have been lawfully married, in the penalty of one hundred guilders, or as much less or more as their circumstances shall be found to warrant."

The English immigrants took pride in celebrating what was called "A Merry English Wedding." No matter how poor the new-made husband he must find money for the Gargantuan spreads which the guests expected. The minister finished the ceremony by kissing the bride; then all the gentlemen followed his example, while it was the bridegroom's privilege to kiss each of the ladies. A bride might receive the salutations of a hundred men in the course of the day; and as if this were not enough the men called on the bride afterwards and this call was colloquially known as "going to kiss the bride." A practice among the rougher frontier people was to carry off the bride and hold her prisoner until she was ransomed by the groom providing entertainment for the captors.

The old custom of erecting May-poles and dancing around them prevailed until a late day. Sometimes when a bridegroom had given offense by evincing stinginess, not inviting his friends to his wedding-feast, or in case of an ill-matched couple, a May-pole was adorned with ragged stockings in lieu of flowers and placed before his door. New Year's Day was celebrated among the New York Dutch by the calls of gentlemen upon their female friends, who set out tables with a great stock of eatables and potables. This day and the church festivals, kept alike by the Dutch and the English, brought an intermission of labor to the New York slaves, who gathered in throngs to devote themselves to wild frolics. Debauchery presently usurped the place of innocent enjoyment and these assemblages were converted into orgies. Consequently, on December 1, 1655, the Council proclaimed "that from this time forth, on the New Year and May-days, there shall be no firing or May-poles planted; nor shall there be any beating of the drum; nor shall there be on the occasion any wines, brandy-wines or beer dealt out" under a fine of twelve guilders for the first offense, twenty-four for the second, and corporal correction for the third.

The ceremonies attendant on the funeral in colonial days are de-

scribed as deserving to rank as festive occasions. There was during these events much eating and drinking. Whole pipes of Madeira, with several hogsheads of beer, were drunk at single funerals in New York, to say nothing of the food eaten and the tobacco smoked by friends who made a day—and sometimes a night—of it in honor of the departed. Legislative interference was more than once invoked to prevent the friends of the deceased from eating and drinking his widow and children out of house and home, and men were known on their deathbeds to forbid the distribution of liquors at their obsequies. The precaution was well-timed, for funerals sometimes became the occasions of drunkenness and riot. There was an early custom of firing volleys over the graves of persons of rank, even though the one interred might be a woman. There were many other sources of expense. The "underbearers," who carried the coffin, walking with their heads and shoulders covered with the pall-cloth, wore plain gloves; but the pallbearers, the minister and many of the friends were presented with costly gloves of silk or leather. So many gloves were received by persons of wide social connections that a considerable revenue was derived from the sale of them. If the means of the family permitted, fine linen scarfs, caught on one shoulder, with a bow of white or black ribbon and fastened under the opposite arm with ribbon, were furnished to the clergy, physicians and pallbearers. Mourning rings were large and elaborate. "The most common figure upon them," writes Mrs. Van Cortlandt, "was a willow tree and urn done in hair. I have seen long pieces of the same kind worn like the present scarfpins, and heavy rings of white enamel, with the names of the person in whose memory they were given inserted in gold letters." The expense of making such presents can readily be imagined. If the distance to the burying ground was short, the deceased was carried on a bier. The slaves followed with spotless napkins pinned over the left arm a little above the elbow. This ostentation prevailed until the Revolutionary War compelled economy to be observed. A specimen account is that rendered in 1760 by William Cook in the estate of Mrs. James Alexander, widow of the prominent lawyer and mother of Lord Stirling. It read thus:

	£.	s.	d.
To ye rectors	0	13	0
To opening ye (Trinity) vault	0	9	0
To 5 bells tooling, 18s. each	4	10	0
To ye pall	0	18	0
To ye clearks fees	0	5	6
To 3 invitations, at 18s. each	2	14	0
To cleaning ye church	0	12	0
To 6 Porters, at 6s.	1	16	0
	11	97	6

To a coffin covered with cloth and lined within. Finding for ditto, double gilt furniture, full trimmed with all belonging, except cloth, lining and Ribbon	10	0	0
To making up state room, finding stuff & tacks	0	14	0
	10	14	0

Nor does this account include the funeral baked meats, the gloves, mourning rings, and other items of expense.

State and Church—The settlers from Holland in New Amsterdam and its environs were great churchgoers and on Sundays never failed to attend "Kerck" to listen to the much-respected dominie. The duration of the sermon was limited to one hour and in order that the preacher should not exceed it an hour-glass was placed upon the clerk's desk and he was thus made the timekeeper. Another church custom was that the collection was taken in a bag, which the deacon carried fixed to a long black pole, at the end of which was fastened a bell to arouse the sleepers. It was also the custom for the sexton to notify the people of the hour of service by rapping at their doors with his ivory-headed cane and calling out: "Church-time," for which he was paid by each family two shillings per annum. He also carried to the clerk all written requests for the prayers of the congregation. "The clerk had a long rod, slit at the end, into which he inserted the note, and handed it up to the minister, who occupied a very high pulpit in the shape of a half-globe, raised on the top of a demi-column and canopied with a sounding-board. The minister wore a black silk mantle, a cocked hat and a neck band, with linen cambric 'beffy' on his breast, for cravats were then uncanonical." The Sabbath therefore was generally respected; but that there were many unruly spirits who profaned it is evident from the ordinance of October 26, 1656, which forbade all the usual pursuits of trade and labor—"much less any idle or unallowed sports, such as drinking to excess, frequenting inns or tap-houses, dancing, card-playing, tick-tacking, playing at ball, playing at bowls, playing at nine-pins, taking jaunts in boats, wagons or carriages, before, between or during divine service; and particularly no innkeeper or tapster shall be allowed, before, between or during divine service, to follow his customary business nor undertake to tap, hand out, give or sell any brandy-wines, beers, or ardent spirits, directly or indirectly." Very heavy fines were provided for infringement of this enactment, and when the British came into possession, they legislated in the same direction.

The connection between the state and the church was very close in the New Netherlands, and the Council was intolerant towards dissenters. The ordinance of February 1, 1656, is an example. It absolutely prohibited "all public or private conventicles or assemblies as

are without the wonted (and only allowed by God's word) Reformed and appointed assembly of the Reformed Religion, in conformity with the synod of Dort, here, in this land, in our Fatherland, and in other Reformed Churches observed and followed, under the penalty of one hundred pounds Flemish, to be incurred by all those persons who in such public or private assemblies, without the wonted and authorized assembly, whether on the Sunday or any other day, being unauthorized, shall presume to exercise the profession of Preaching, Prelection, or singing; and twenty-five pounds, alike Flemish, to be incurred over and above by every male and female, married and single, who may be found in such assembly." It is curious that while the Dutch authorities thus interdicted all religions but their own, they protested in this ordinance that they intended no "prejudice to any patent heretofore given by them, or any lording over the conscience, or prohibiting the reading of God's holy word, or the domestic praying and reading of each one in his family; but all public and private conventicles and assemblies, whether in public or private houses, without the aforesaid wonted and established Reformed Divine worship." When the English régime began it evinced a certain liberality to every sect except the Catholic element. The articles of capitulation expressly provided that "the Dutch here shall enjoy the liberty of their consciences in divine worship and discipline." None but Protestant ministers were allowed to officiate within the government, but difference of judgment was allowed to all who professed Christianity. The English made the maintenance of the ministry and poor a chief care of their administration, and their laws and edicts relating thereto are multifarious. They appointed overseers for each parish to levy assessments for the building of churches, the payment of the clergy, and the maintenance of paupers, and while they tolerated other forms of faith, they compelled every person to pay the rates of the church "whereof he doth or may receive benefit." Governor Nicolls expressed the exact obligation in the order that "every township is obliged to pay their minister according to such agreement as they shall make with him, and no man to refuse his proportion, the minister being elected by the major part of the householder inhabitants of the town." It was the original scheme of the English that in each parish a church "should be built in the most convenient part thereof, capable to receive and accommodate two hundred persons," but this was found impracticable, for in 1655 it was provided that such churches should be built within three years afterwards, and to that end a town rate or tax was authorized to begin that year. In default of payment of the church rates by towns or individuals, a summary process was authorized for the collection of the assessments and subscriptions. It should not, however, be taken for granted that the

Church of England immediately became the established church in New York. The controversy between Governor Sloughter and the Assembly, in 1693, points the religious history of the time. All the members of the Assembly but one were Dissenters, and in considering a bill for settling a ministry they absolutely refused to incorporate an amendment submitted by the Governor, providing that the bill should be presented to him, "to be approved and collated." His object was to construct it to the advantage of the Church of England, and as the Assemblymen could not be coerced or persuaded, he prorogued the session and scolded them vigorously in an address wherein he notified them that he "would take care neither heresy, schism, nor rebellion be preached amongst you." This enactment of September 22, 1693, required the establishment of a "good, sufficient Protestant minister, to officiate and have the care of souls within one year next" in specified districts. Two were ordered for Westchester County, "one to have the care of Westchester, East Chester, Yonkers and the Manor of Pelham; the other to have the care of Rye, Mamaroneck and Bedford." Each was to be paid fifty pounds per annum by a levy laid upon the people, which they might pay "in country produce at money price." Iron-clad enactments protected the pastor against the possibility of non-payment of salary. The justices of the county were required to issue warrants to the constables to summon the freeholders on the second Tuesday of January, to choose ten vestrymen and ten church wardens; the justices and the vestrymen laid the tax, and if it was not paid the constables had the power to distrain for it. At each stage of the proceedings fines were provided for persons or officials who failed to discharge their duties.

The Puritan population were severely affected by this enactment. Francis Doughty, who had been expelled by the Congregationalists from Taunton, Massachusetts, is said to have been the first Puritan or Presbyterian minister in New York. He officiated from 1643 to 1648, and was supported by voluntary contributions from the Puritans and Dutch of the city and its environs. Puritans were certainly among the early settlers of Westchester. In the third volume of the "Documentary History of New York" there is an interesting description of a Puritan service at Westchester in 1656, conducted by two laymen, Robert Bassett and a Mr. Bayley, who were probably ruling elders, one reading a sermon and the other leading in prayer. When the colony was surrendered to the Duke of York in September, 1664, there were within its bounds six Puritan ministers settled with their flocks. There were also Puritan bands at Rye and Westchester which were without pastors. Governor Andros did not trouble the Puritan churches, which lost some of their veteran pastors, but continued to increase in numbers. Nathaniel

OLD FRENCH CHARLIE'S HOUSE ON BRONX RIVER PARKWAY BELOW GUN HILL ROAD. WHEN DEMOLISHED A FEW YEARS AGO IT WAS THE LAST REMNANT OF THE OLD FRENCH COLONY

HORSES IN PHELAN'S, 1902
(NOW CORNER OF WASHINGTON AND PELHAM AVENUES)

Brewster settled at Brookhaven and supplied East Chester in 1665. In 1674 Eliphalet Jones supplied Rye and Ezekiel Fogg supplied East Chester. In 1675 Peter Prudden preached at Rye, and Thomas Denham settled there in 1677. Thus within twelve years there were five Presbyterian clergymen exercising their functions in Westchester County. They and their flocks shared in the struggle which all Dissenters had to make with Governor Sloughter's efforts to establish the Church of England as the State Church, but still Presbyterianism flourished. In Westchester County the Rev. John Woodbridge located at Rye and the Rev. Warham Mather at Westchester in 1684. These two clergymen were among the most important personages in the lively episode which followed the conversion of the Rev. William Vesey, a Puritan pastor in New York to the Church of England. His charge of faith is said to have been procured by Colonel Heathcote, who, upon his settlement at Scarsdale, Westchester County, in 1692, showed himself a still zealous proselyter for the Church of England. In a letter to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, dated April 10, 1704, he relates a contention that was of great moment at the time:

> The people of Westchester, East Chester and a place called Lower Yonkers agreed with one Warner Mather, and the people of Rye with one Mr. Woodbridge, both of New England, there being at that time scarce six in the whole county who so much as inclined to the church. After Mather had been with them some time, Westchester parish made choise of me for one of their church wardens in hopes of using my influence with Colonel (Governor) Fletcher to have Mather inducted to the living. I told them it was altogether impossible for me to comply with their desires, it being wholly repugnant to the laws of England to compel the subject to pay for the maintenance of any minister who was not of the National Church, and that it lay not in any Governor's power to help them, but since they were so zealous for having religion and good order settled amongst 'em, I would propose a medium in that matter, which was that there being at Boston a French Protestant minister, Mr. Bondett, a very good man, who was in orders from my Lord (Archbishop) of London, and the people of New Rochelle being destitute of a minister, we would call Mr. Bondett to the living, and the parish being large enough to maintain two, we would likewise continue Mr. Mather and support him by subscription. The vestry seemed to be extremely well pleased with this proposal and desired me to send for Mr. Bondett, which I immediately did, hoping by that means to bring them over to the church; but Mather, apprehending what I aimed at, persuaded the vestry to alter their resolution, and when he came they refused to call him, so that projection failing me, and finding that it was impossible to make any progress toward settling the church as long as Mather continued among us, I made it my business in the next place to devise ways to get him out of the country, which I was not long in contriving, which being effected and having gained some few proselytes in every town, and those who were of the best esteem amongst 'em, who having none to oppose them, and being assisted by Mr. Vesey and Mr. Bondett, who very often preached in several parts of the country, baptizing the children, by easy methods the people were soon wrought into a good opinion of the church and indeed beyond my expectations.

It is not explained by what means Heathcote drove the Puritan clergymen out of the country, but it is not to be questioned that he turned many of the Presbyterians over to the Anglican faith and prepared the way for the work of the Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge, an organization of the Church of England, which sent John Bartow out as a missionary. He was placed in charge of the Puritan churches of East Chester, Westchester, and Jamaica by Governor Cornbury, and the Puritan ministers, Joseph Morgan, of Westchester, and John Hubbard, of Jamaica, were forced to retire from their church buildings and parsonages. "Lord Cornbury," writes C. W. Baird, "equally zealous with his predecessor, Fletcher, for the spread of the Church of England, assumed the right that Fletcher had claimed to induct ministers into parishes, and under color of a law that had no existence put the missionaries of the Society in possession of churches, glebes and parsonages. This was done, or attempted, at Westchester and East Chester, Rye and Bedford. In Rye only, of all these towns, no church had been built; but a tax was levied upon the inhabitants for its erection, and meanwhile the house and lands which had been provided for a minister and held by a succession of pastors, were taken for the missionary." John Hubbard made a fight but Cornbury ousted him in favor of Bartow, who then attacked Morgan, with the result narrated in his own letter of December 1, 1707, to the secretary of the Society:

> Not long after this my Lord (Cornbury) requested me to go and preach at East Chester; accordingly I went (tho' some there had given out threatening words should I dare to come), but tho' I was there very early and the people had notice of my coming, their Presbyterian minister, Mr. Morgan, had begun service in the meeting-house, to which I went straitway and continued the whole time of service without interruption, and in the afternoon I was permitted to perform the Church of England services, Mr. Morgan being present, and neither he nor the people seemed to be dissatisfied, and after some time of preaching there afterwards they desired me to come oftener, and I concluded to minister there once a month, which now I have done for about three years, and Mr. Morgan is retired into New England.

New England Puritanism suffered a decline in the population of New York and Westchester as a result of the antagonism of Cornbury; but with the accession of the house of Hanover to the English throne in 1714 persecution of the Puritans in America came to something like an end. On November 22, 1728, the Rev. William Tennent settled at East Chester and began to rebuild Puritanism in the county. He removed to Bedford on May 1, 1720, and remained until August, 1726, preaching in all the townships. When Methodism divided the churches of the colony into antagonistic forces he became one of its leaders. An impetuous revival of faith occurred which was guided by Thomas Smith of Rye and Samuel Sackett at Bedford. Tennent and his ad-

herents were excluded from the Synod of Philadelphia in 1741, in the absence of the entire Presbytery of New York. The excluded Methodists rallied around the Presbytery of New Brunswick, and in 1745 it combined with the Presbytery of New York in erecting the Synod of New York, all of the churches of which were in sympathy with the Methodists. In 1752 the Rye Church united with the Synod and thus all the original Puritan churches of New York, organized in the seventeenth century, were combined in one compact synodical organization. On November 29, 1769, Mr. De Witt offered in the Assembly a bill "to exempt the inhabitants of the counties of Westchester, New York, Queens and Richmond from any taxation for support of the Ministers of churches to which they do not belong." And this was finally passed with amendments applying it especially to persons not in communion with the Church of England.

Indian and Other Currencies—And now to pass on to more material matters. The Dutch pioneers on Manhattan found it convenient to adopt the currency of the Indians, who took the common periwinkle, called by them "Meteauhock," found in great quantities along the shores, and having broken it so as to secure the thick portion at the stem, made beads about the size of a straw and a third of an inch in length. This was the white sewant of least value. A black bead of the same description was made from the large round clam called the "quahaug." These beads were woven into belts, and divided into pieces of different values. Four beads counted for a stuyver, or two for a cent, and a beaded string a fathom long was valued at four guilders, equivalent to $1.66. Sewant was commonly measured by spans, and the Indians, in their traffic with the Dutch, always chose as traders their men who could cover the greatest length between finger and thumb. But counterfeits sprang up, and the currency in course of time became debased. The Indian money was even imported from Europe, where imitations were made of porcelain, but this base article could not impose on the natives and the counterfeit failed as speculation. The "good splendid sewant of Manhattans" was the genuine article and passed in all the Indian country roundabout, for the island of Manhattan and the neighboring sections were the great minting places of the Indians. Up the North River, in Westchester and elsewhere, sewant had its legal tender value well defined until so many broken, unstrung and badly made pieces came into circulation that the Dutch government—coin being scarce at the time—was obliged to find a new currency. Beaverskins supplied the deficiency and became the next flat money of the day. This was an article less subject to fluctuation and was divided into "whole beavers" and "half beavers," the former being rated at about three dollars. What little of the Dutch currency was in circulation was known as "Hollands."

In contracts for sale and purchase of real estate and personal property, the distinctive sorts of payment were usually expressed; and if not stated, it was understood that sewant was the consideration. There were certain sorts of contracts, however, such as ocean freights, in which, by the customs of the merchants, it was implied that payment was made in beavers. On account of the debasement of the sewant currency, the council ordered in May, 1650, that six white or three black sewants should pass for one stuyver, which was reckoned at half a cent, and the base strung sewant, eight white or four black for one stuyver.

Legislation on the matter of legal tender was at that time not well understood. Many people refused to accept the base sewant until in the following September the council enacted "that the base strung sewant should be received by every one without distinction, in payment for small daily and necessary commodities in housekeeping, and that it should be current as follows: For twelve guilders or under, all may be paid in base strung sewant; from twelve to twenty-four guilders, half base and half good strung sewant; and in larger sums agreeably to the agreement between buyer and seller." In 1658 the rate was again altered to eight white and four black of the good sewant for one stuyver. The colony was suffering from a superabundant and depreciated currency, which was intrinsically worthless. Beavers, which had an actual value apart from that which legislation could place upon them, appreciated until they were rated at sixteen guilders each; and, as a matter of course, provisions and household necessaries followed the great upward movement of the currency which kept anything like an even ratio with real money. Shopkeepers, tapsters, brewers, bakers, grocers, and workingmen charged a difference of eighty, ninety or a hundred per cent between sewant and beaver in taking pay for their goods or their labor. The council struggled bravely to enhance the value of the sewant by resorting to the fiction that values can be controlled by arbitrary enactment. Its next law, which was passed on November 11, 1658, was "that the brewers, tapsters, bakers and other shopkeepers and common grocers, should sell the daily necessary family commodities to the buyers at their different prices, to wit, silver money, beavers and sewant: as for instance, the brewers should deliver one barrel of good beer for ten guilders (about $3.80) in silver money, according to the Holland value of fifteen guilders in beavers, the beaver at eight guilders to twenty-two guilders; in sewant, eight white of four black for a stuyver."

Drink and Food—It is testimony to the drinking customs of the Dutch families that beer and wine were estimated by the law as necessaries of which no household should be deprived by exorbitant or fluctuating prices. The cost of the malt liquor was made little enough in the ordinance of 1658, and it was equally accommodating in providing

that French wine should cost no more than eighteen stuyvers or nine cents the pint in silver money; Spanish wine no more than twenty-four stuyvers, and brandywine only five stuyvers for a gill. Yet these prices, which were official, so to speak, were subject to the competition set up by the smugglers, whose illicit trade in the harbor and for a long distance up the Hudson had much to do with stocking the bars of the tapsters and the cellars of the manorial lords, besides furnishing the Indians and slaves with the cheap liquors that incited them to riot, "whereby," says the ordinance of October 26, 1656, "almost all the calamities occur." This omnibus enactment proceeded after the smugglers with a stinging thong. Five hundred guilders was the fine fixed for the first offense, and the forfeiture of the "barque, yacht, boat or canoe" the owner whereof attempted to evade the custom officers, for the second. Still the rewards of the prohibited trade were so tempting that the many seamen engaged in it continued to run the gauntlet. They brought their cargoes to the numerous secure nooks in the river-shore in Westchester County, and when the contraband goods were once unloaded and run into the back country, they might defy detection. In pursuing the smugglers the council did not omit to pay attention to various frauds perpetrated by lawful traders. The comprehensive enactment aimed at the smugglers also embraced a fulmination against the bakers. It obliged them "at least once or twice a week, to bake both coarse and white loaves of bread, both for Christians and Indians, at the established price and weight of one double coarse loaf, eight pounds, for fourteen stuyvers," and smaller loaves in proportion. The double white loaf was required to weigh two pounds, and to be sold for eight stuyvers. In case of light-weight bread, or over-charges, the bread was forfeited and the baker fined twenty-five guilders for the first offense, fifty for the second, and for the third six hundred guilders and absolutely prohibited from conducting the business. No bakers were permitted "to sell any bread made of sifted bran, whether at wholesale or retail, to Christians or Indians; but the bakers of coarse bread may make their coarse bread of the ground grain as it comes from the mill." It was further enacted that in consequence of "the many frauds in baking and tapping," "no person shall follow the business of baking and tapping without first having made application to those of the magistrates in their respective districts, and having procured from the same or their authorized agents a license for that business," which was to be renewed quarterly. The criminal law was rigorously administered in colonial days and its penalties were almost ferociously harsh. About the time of the settlement of New York, hanging was succeeding beheading in the northern European countries as the means of executing those convicted of capital crime, and it was not long before the hangman

became one of the officials of the colonies. His methods were far more brutal and painful than those which a more humane civilization has devised. Instead of the modern trap, or other appliances designed to dislocate the vertebra of the convict, the old-time gibbet was merely two uprights with a cross beam, from which depended the rope and noose. He was driven under it in a cart, the noose fastened about his neck and the cart driven off, leaving him to perish slowly of strangulation. Such malefactors were always hanged in chains and their bodies left swinging in the irons for months, a supposed ghastly and terrible warning to evildoers. Sometimes the hangman would jump upon the shoulders or swing from the feet of the victim in order to expedite the strangling process.

Offenses and Punishment—The whipping post, the stocks, and the pillory, were instruments of punishment for lesser offenses. They were part of the judicial equipment of every county town or seat of government, and stood conveniently near to the courthouse or jail, for in the early days both were usually situated in one building. Punishment by the pillory was much the more severe, the victim being in a standing position; but even that by the stocks was painful, and it was not uncommon for men to swoon under the agony of either the pillory or the stocks. But while the colonists followed European precedent in the infliction of rigorous penalties, and their laws embraced many statutory crimes now abolished, they made no use of such instruments of torture as the rack, wheel, thumb-screw, or pincers, found in all European prisons. Even the ducking stool does not appear to have been used outside of New England. It will thus be gathered that the government of New Amsterdam, which exercised jurisdiction over the valley of the Bronx and in Westchester County, went a long distance in the details of everyday life, and was almost microscopic in its purview of the incidents of trade and personal relations. While this is true it was to a large extent a liberal government. Modern criticism may take exception to its religious intolerance, but it has been claimed that that was more apparent than real. The Dutch settlers on Manhattan and above on the Hudson were soon joined by English Puritans, Huguenots from Rochelle, Waldenses from the Piedmont country of France, German Lutherans and Anabaptists, Swedes and Irish and Walloon Catholics. They lived together amicably, because the Dutch trend in the new country was in the direction of tolerance, whatever might have been the jealousy between creeds in the old.

Revolutionary Incidents in Lower Westchester—Incidents that occurred in Westchester County during the War of the Revolution reveal much of the methods and habits of the people of the time and the kind

of environment in which they lived. The phlegmatic Dutchman who occupied the Livingston house at Dobbs Ferry at the time was temporarily frightened away by the hum of cannon-balls about his premises. When in 1777 General Lincoln made the place his headquarters he piled four barrels of gunpowder in a little shed in the rear of the house, answering the proprietor's remonstrances with the remark that "it was a good dry place for it." After the army marched away the Dutchman found that the barrels contained nothing but sand, and had been placed there as a ruse to deceive the enemy if any spies should happen to be prowling about. At Dobbs Ferry also General Washington entertained the Duc de Lauzen, Count de Rochambeau, Steuben and others of the distinguished foreign officers who had come to his aid, on July 6, 1781. Alexander Hamilton presided, and his graceful manners and witty speech provoked general interest. There also Washington and Sir Guy Carleton and their respective suites met to arrange for the evacuation of New York by the British. On the sequestration of the Philipseburgh Manor the property was purchased by Peter Van Brugh Livingston, and it thence took his family name. The Roger Morris house, at the most elevated point of Harlem Heights, where the steep, rocky right bank of the Harlem River slopes gently to the southwest, was built in 1758 for the man whose name it bore after that time. He was, as has been already noted, a captain in the British army, and in the year in which the house was built married Mary Philipse, for whose hand Washington is said, on more or less good authority, to have been an unsuccessful suitor. "A lively fancy," observes one commentator, "may be permitted to call up his emotions when, in September, 1776, as commander-in-chief of the American Army, he made the residence of a woman who had rejected him his headquarters, or when, in July, 1790, as President of the United States, he revisited it, she and her husband being attainted fugitives from the home which the new government had confiscated. The wealthy Frenchman, Stephen Jumel, bought it, and his wife adorned it with an exquisite taste and lavish hand. There she lived until her death in 1865; there, in the days of her widowhood, she married Aaron Burr, and it was over this very valuable estate that her heirs wrangled until the courts disposed of it."

During and after the fight at Chatterton Hill General Washington had his headquarters in the Miller house at White Plains, which until recently was in the possession of the Miller family by whose name it continued to be known. He was frequently at the Birdsall house in Peekskill, which was one of the first buildings erected in the village. It was a favorite tavern and was repeatedly visited by the officers when the allied armies, under Washington and Rochambeau, menaced the English

positions in and about New York. It stood on the old post road and continued to be kept as a tavern. Near by could be seen remains of the old fort which crowned the elevated position at the mouth of the Highland Gorge.

There were a number of localities in the Westchester region, as appears from some Revolutionary papers, which there has been later a difficulty in identifying. Thus Washington in his order-book under date of October 24, 1782, directs:

"The tents being too cold for the accommodation of the sick, the regimental surgeons will send no more to the flying hospital, but have such as are hospital patients sent to the huts at New Boston."

On the night of May 13, 1781, Lieutenant-Colonel Greene, the hero of Red Bank, was killed at his quarters on the Croton River, near the site of the present dam, by a party of De Lancey's corps. Paymaster Thomas Hughes, of the American Army, who was in the house at the time, contrived to escape. A letter describing the action, written a few hours afterwards, he dates at Rhode Island Village. Both New Boston and Rhode Island Village are places not easily located by the modern mind.

Old Time Taverns—The old time taverns above the Harlem had their records worthy of preservation. One of the most celebrated of these taverns was the "Blue Bell," concerning the location of which also there has been a good deal of speculation. Charles A. Campbell thus indicates it in a quotation from an old chronicle:

"The holy sacrament was administered to the Huguenots of New Rochelle four times a year, viz.: Christmas, Easter, Whitsunday, and the middle of September. During the intermissions that occurred the communicants walked to New York for that purpose. Prior to their departure, on a Sunday, they always collected the young children and left them in the care of their friends, while they set off early in the morning and walked to the city barefooted, carrying their shoes and stockings in their hands. About twelve miles from New York at a place since called the Blue Bell there was a large rock by the roadside covered with cedar; here they stopped for a short time to rest and take some refreshments, and then proceeded on their journey till they came to Fresh Water Pond, within the bounds of the city. Here they washed their feet, put on their shoes and stockings, and walked to the French Church (the old Église du St. Ésprit in Pine Street), where they generally arrived by the time service began."

Another writer has identified the tavern with the house on the east side of the King's Bridge road, "opposite the old yellow house now standing south of One Hundred and Eighty-first Street," and added that it was directly east of Fort Washington, and was demolished about

1820. To support his statement against those other people who urged that it was on the west side of the highway, the writer quotes at length from the reminiscences and other papers of Isaac M. Dyckman and Balzius Ryer. He contends that the mistake arose from the location or another antique house about half a mile south of the "Blue Bell," a house which was on the west side of the road and was destroyed by fire about 1846. The "Magazine of American History" for November, 1881, reviews all this testimony and draws the deduction that the colonial tavern was on the west side, but that some time after 1802, the first hostelry of the name having been abandoned in 1787, Blaze Moore revived the old sign of the "Blue Bell" at a tavern which he kept on the east side. Lossing's gossip of this venerable house of refreshments accepts the west side theory and makes it a structure that, when he wrote, was still standing and occupied as a dwelling. He quotes Cadwallader Colden who, in October, 1753, wrote to his wife of having rested at it on a journey to New York, when it was "very well kept by a Dutchman named Vanderventer, and our food and lodgings were very comfortable." Tradition has it that General Heath occupied it for his headquarters in October, 1776, and that Washington and Lee met there on the morning when they followed the American Army and journeyed together to The Bronx. It was the headquarters of the Hessian Colonel Ralle after the assault on Fort Washington. One of his aides fell in love with the pretty sister of young Vanderventer, and promised to remain in America if she would marry him. Her mother and Ralle favored the union, and despite the opposition of her brother they were married in Ralle's own room by his chaplain the night before his departure from the "Blue Bell." The young husband was made prisoner by Washington at the battle of Trenton, and refusing to be exchanged took the oath of allegiance to the Unites States and settled in New Jersey. On October 24, 1783, Washington stood in front of this tavern to review the troops as they were marching into New York. There he confided to the care of Major Robert Burnet, commanding the rearguard, a young deserter from the British Army, who had secretly married an American girl at the "Blue Bell" on the preceding day. Thus at least on two occasions had the venerable inn in Revolutionary times been the scene of a clandestine wedding.

There were a number of other ancient houses on the Kingsbridge Road concerning which interesting particulars have been preserved. There was, for example, the "Cross Keys" a very old stone house at about what is now One Hundred and Sixty-fifth Street, for a long time the only survivor of the outward Revolutionary inns. It was traditionally one of Washington's stopping places and its name came from the illustration on its sign board. One of its proprietors in the time of the

Revolution was David Wares. Then there was the Dyckman House, the only real Dutch farm that remained for a long time on the road, standing not far from the twelve-mile stone, and built by Jacob Dyckman, as we are told by Isaac M. Dyckman, the later representative of the Dyckman family at Kingsbridge, just after the close of the war, the earlier Dyckman homestead having been burned by the enemy. This later Dyckman has been described as a very wealthy and enterprising man, who was the projector of a bridge across the Harlem River, sometimes called by his name, and he is said to have owned the land on which the large hotel at Kingsbridge later stood. The old one stood on about the same foundation and was burned down in the middle of the last century. Before that it was remembered as being kept by James Devoe. General Heath in his "Memoirs" speaks of it as Hyatt's Tavern. This was in 1777. Devoe subsequently hired it to one Jacob Hyatt, and it appears to have been known for some time as Dyckman's Tavern from the fact of the Dyckman ownership.

Then there was the McComb House, at Kingsbridge, long the property of Joseph Godwin, which is said to have been used as a tavern during the time of the Revolution, and where it is said Mrs. McComb was accustomed to point out to her guests one of the upper rooms as once the sleeping room of Washington. Dr. Bibby, of Cortlandt House, has put on record that the property was purchased shortly after the War of Independence from the heirs of Eden Metcalf by Alexander McComb, of New York, the father of Alexander McComb, of the United States Army. In addition there was the "Century House." It was for a long time the oldest farmhouse standing on or near the Kingsbridge Road. It was on the bank of the Harlem River and belonged to the old Nagle family, original landowners of that part of the island contemporaneously with the Dyckmans. Its date, marked on a stone inserted in the front wall, was, 1734.

There were two "Black Horse" inns of more or less celebrity. That of the Colonial and Revolutionary period was situated near McGowan's Pass, and was still standing in 1812. The second was built in 1805 near the Tabby Hook Landing, or what later became Inwood Street, and was the half-way house for the Albany coaches between their starting-point in New York City and the first change at Yonkers. Henry Norman was its builder and original proprietor, and when Mrs. Crawford, a widow, kept it, a sign bearing the figure of a black horse, swung from a pole in front of the door. Neither the inn nor the land on which it stood had many owners. In 1740 John Schuyler, Jr., Philip Schuyler, Stephen Bayard, Jr., and James Stephenson had it by letters patent from the king of England; from them it passed to John Livingston, who sold it, with all its rights and titles, "except to gold and silver mines,"

to Johannis Seckeles. Seckeles sold it to Henry Norman, and he in turn to a Dyckman, and the latter to the Flint family.

Water the Ancient Highway—Sloops, periaugers, batteaux, and canoes constituted the vehicles of communication in the early days. As in all new countries, water was the natural highway; and the waters of the Sound, the Hudson, and the Harlem, all adjacent to the shores of the territory of what is now the borough, gave easy and convenient access to Manhattan Island and to the settlers near the shores. Westchester Creek was navigable for sloops and when Captain de Connick and Fiscal Van Tienhoven went to eject the English settlers at Oostdorp, they ascended the river and creek in vessels of that class. The Bronx and the Hutchinson rivers were both navigable for several miles in batteaux and canoes, the former to West Farms and the latter to Eastchester. In recent years the federal government has deepened the channel of the latter stream so that heavily laden coal vessels and small steamers are able to ascend at high tide as far as the city dock at Mount Vernon, contiguous to old St. Paul's Church, and just over the boundary line of the borough. From time out of mind and almost to the present generation a regular sloop trade was carried on from Westchester borough town to New York City. In an advertisement of the Rev. Samuel Seabury there is a paragraph which says: "Westchester is about nineteen miles from New York, by Land, and about fifteen by Water; and a Water-passage may be had almost every Day, when the Weather will permit, in good safe Boats." There was a regular sloop trade also to Eastchester, even during the Revolution; and it was by first capturing the market sloop engaged in this trade with New York that the Darien whaleboatmen were able to effect the capture of the "Schuldam," the British guard-ship. The building of these vessels began very early. Shonnard in his "History of Westchester County," on the authority of the Rev. Theodore A. Leggett, a descendant of one of the patentees of the West Farms, states that John Leggett, a shipbuilder, executed, on November 30, 1676, a bill of sale as follows:

"John Leggett of Westchester, within the Province of N. Y., shipwright, to Jacob Leysler of N. Y. City, merchant, a good Puick, or ship, 'Susannah' of New York, now laying (sic) in this harbour, and by the said Leggett built in Bronck's river near Westchester, together with masts, Lay boat, and other materials."

The shipbuilding industry, thus begun in 1676, or earlier, has continued to the present day in the territory of the borough; but it is now principally carried on in the old manor of Pelham, at City Island, where yachts and pleasure craft are built, repaired, and laid up out of season.

There was boat communication, moreover, by way of the Harlem River and Spuyten Duyvil Creek; for in November, 1776, Lord Corn-

wallis carried his troops in a flotilla of boats through the river and creek to the Hudson for the attack on Fort Washington from the Hudson River side. That these streams had always been navigable was one of the arguments used by Lewis G. Morris and his supporters in their opposition to Macomb's dam. In their communication inland the settlers at first used the old Indian trails. The principal village and fort of the Siwanoys was on a hill to the south of the present Unionport, overlooking Westchester Creek. From the strong stockade, palisaded in the Indian fashion, the hill came to be known as "Castle Hill," a name by which it is known today. A village of the Manhattans was located at Spuyten Duyvil Neck, and another at Nepperhaem, the present Yonkers; while above the latter are the villages of Weckquaesgeeks, all members of the Mohican tribe. In their communications with each other and with their neighbors on Manhattan Island by way of the "wading place" there was formed in time a plainly marked trail extending from Paparinemo to Castle Hill, called in Doughty's patent to Archer the "Westchester Path." From Westchester another plainly marked trail led by way of Eastchester across Hutchinson River and contiguous to the Sound, through the Rye woods to "the great stone at the wading place" at the Byram River, the eastern boundary of the colony and of the State. It extended still further into Connecticut, also occupied by the Siwanoys, as far as the villages of the Pequods, a kindred tribe of Mohicans. It was by this path that many of the Connecticut settlers found their way into the Dutch colony of New Netherland and gave Stuyvesant so much trouble. This was preëminently the "Westchester Path."

Early Trails—It was natural that the earliest whites should follow these long established and plainly marked trails. As time passed these trails became wider as the travelers cut down the trees for the convenient passage of their horses or wagons. We find, therefore, in these trails the beginnings of the roads which later developed into some of the principal highways of the region, with such changes in grade and direction as the necessities of wagon roads required—the Albany and the Boston Post roads, and the Kingsbridge Road leading through Fordham, as well as Eastchester Avenue connecting the parishes of St. Peter's and St. Paul's. The Albany Post Road was opened to the Sawkill, or Sawmill River, in Yonkers, as early as 1669. The traveler, having arrived at the end of Manhattan Island over the old Kingsbridge Road from Harlem, would cross Spuyten Duyvil Creek by the ford, the ferry, or the bridge and thus land on the island of Paparinemo. Passage up the west side of the marsh was impossible, and in ancient days the task of filling it in for a roadway would have

been too costly to have been undertaken. The traveler therefore turned to his right through the marsh, or later over the causeway built by Archer, Verveelen, Betts, Tippett, Hadden, and the inhabitants of Fordham, and found himself in that village. Here he would turn to the left along the base of Tetard's Hill, and so north on the higher and dryer ground on the eastern side of the marsh. The road crossed "Tippett" Brook about a mile from the bridge, near the Van Cortlandt station of the Putnam Railroad, and then swung eastward in front of and below the Van Cortlandt mansion, to the western side of the valley, up which it passed to Yonkers. After passing through the lands of John Hadden, it came within the manor of Philipseburgh, and the manor-lord thus became responsible for its maintenance. In fact, as the road led to his toll bridge he probably maintained the lower part of it as well. The ancient road, or the greater part of it, still remains and is known to the residents of the section as the old Albany Post Road. It could not have been more than a trail at first; but later the postman traveled on horseback and travelers accompanied him on the way. A woman passenger sometimes rode on a pillion behind the postman. It was not until after the Revolution, in 1785, that stages began running over the post road to Albany. It was not until about 1808 that the present Broadway was filled in on the western side of the marsh. This was done by the Highland Turnpike Company, who hung gates and charged toll. The causeway called Depot Street, connecting Broadway with the railroad station at Kingsbridge, was constructed about 1855 by Joseph Goodwin, as a short-cut to the road leading to Highbridge, Morrisania, West Farms, and Westchester.

Roads Through The Bronx Region—If the traveler had turned to his right through the village of Fordham at the foot of Tetard's Hill, he would have passed over the ancient Westchester Path up over the hill (Highbridge Road), into the present Kingsbridge Road. His course would have been then relatively past the Dutch church at Fordham, the southern end of Jerome Park reservoir, Poe Park, across the tracks of the Harlem Railroad at the station opposite St. John's College, Fordham (though the ancient road used to go through the college grounds), over Pelham Avenue to Bronxdale, whence he could continue over the Bear Swamp Road to Westchester, or turn to his right over the Unionport Road to Castle Hill. The improvements in this section within recent years have obliterated most of the old roads, so that only the general direction can be given by present thoroughfares. The Highbridge and Kingsbridge roads are ancient highways; east of the Bronx River, the rural conditions still prevail to some extent; but the progress of development is so rapid that in a few years they

will have departed also, especially since the completion of the subway has rendered these rural communities accessible. The Bear Swamp Road still exists and leads to Westchester. Its name was derived from a swamp to the east of Bronxdale, where the Siwanoys had an important village near the site of Morris Park race-track. Another road starting from a point on Tetard's Hill beyond the one just described led to De Lancey's Hills at West Farms. This road has long been closed. It branched off from the Westchester and Kingsbridge Road near the present Fordham railroad station, and continued in a southerly direction till it met the line of East 182nd Street, over which it passed approximately to the bridge at East 181st Street below the lower dam in Bronx Park at West Farms, where it was known as the Kingsbridge Road. Its continuation connected the mills with the borough-town of Westchester. The portion of the road lying within the park east of the bridge has been macadamized; but between Morris Park Avenue and the bridge over the tracks of the suburban branch of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad, there still remains enough of the ancient highway to convince us that preceding generations might have traveled in style, but they did not do so in comfort.

The principal road that the traveler could take after crossing the causeway to the village of Fordham was the Boston Road, which dates from 1673. This was swung in a curve around the base of Tetard's Hill and up to its top, paralleling the Albany Road for about a third of a mile, then turning sharply to the eastward towards Williamsbridge. Here it crossed the Bronx River and turned north as far as the head of Rattlesnake Brook, where it again turned sharp east to Eastchester. Here the Hutchinson River was crossed, and the road continued through Pelham Manor to New Rochelle. A few miles of the old road remained until recently and could be traced. The first portion was that leading up to Sedgwick Avenue, where Jerome Park, and later, the reservoir obliterated a section of it. From Jerome Avenue to the Williamsbridge reservoir the part remaining was called Van Cortlandt Avenue, and from the reservoir to the bridge over the Bronx River and to the White Plains Road the section was called the Gun Hill Road.

The White Plains and the Boston roads are the same thing from Williamsbridge northward to where the latter turns off toward Eastchester. This last portion of the road is called Bussing Avenue, which begins at East 231st Street, one block east of White Plains Avenue, and continues on to the city line. As soon as it enters the city of Mt. Vernon, its name becomes what it has been for over two centuries, the Kingsbridge Road. It has been said that the ancient road should not have been called anything else than the Kingsbridge, or Boston Road, with all respect to the Bussings, who were extensive landowners

in the locality. Until recently a few of the signs bearing both titles were still to be found along the Bussing part of the avenue. At Eastchester the ancient road is connected with Coles Boston Road by a short street called Fisher's Lane; but the two roads do not become one until near New Rochelle. The laying out of the Coles Road diverted travel from the way of Spuyten Duyvil Creek, as the distance was considerably shortened by way of the new road and the Harlem Bridge.

If the traveler in going over the Albany Post Road had turned to the eastward at the bridge over Tippett's Brook near Van Cortlandt station he would have continued on a road leading to the Mile Square, as the purchase of French and others from Doughty was called. This road was parallel to Van Cortlandt Lake for over a mile before it turned to the eastward and then northeast to Mile Square. Today it is the road that bounds the seventh to the eighteenth holes of the golf course at Van Cortlandt Park. It probably had its origin in the travel of the farmers of the Mile Square to the mill at Van Cortlandt's to have their grain ground. The road can still be followed up the steep hill in Van Cortlandt Park, then it turns east into East 233rd Street, the northern boundary of Woodlawn Cemetery. Beyond this the ancient highway existed until the early part of 1912 as a rural lane, winding along as the northeastern boundary of the park and called Mount Vernon Avenue. After it crosses McLean Avenue, the city line, it is continued in Yonkers over a fine macadam street, called Kimball Avenue. About one thousand feet from the bridge over Tippett's Brook, on the Mile Square Road, a road branched off to the southwest and connected with the Boston Road to the west of the bridge at William's, about East 210th Street. This was the Gun Hill Road, so called from Revolutionary days. It still exists and has been broadened, graded and macadamized. The name is given to the road both east and west of the Bronx River, though the greater part of it to White Plains Avenue is really the Boston Road. A few yards of both these old roads may be found to remain; their ancient junction is within the walls of the reservoir at Williamsbridge. About three hundred paces from where the Gun Hill Road joined the Boston Road, another road led directly to Yonkers at Valentine's Hill; and this is today substantially Jerome Avenue, crossing the Gun Hill Road between East 210th and East 211th streets. Its extension to the southward to the Macomb's Dam Road and its conversion into a driveway was one of the acts of the Tweed régime in New York. For a couple of years the road was almost impassable, owing to regrading, sewerage, and the like; and it remained in that condition during the time that the extension of the subway was building up the avenue.

Anyone coming south over the Albany Road from Yonkers might,

instead of turning east at Van Cortlandt's, have continued on a road to the west of Tippett's Brook which led along the base of Tippett's Hill to the junction of Spuyten Duyvil Creek and the Hudson River. This road exists as the Spuyten Duyvil Road, known locally as Dash's Lane, after a gentleman of that name who used to live there, one of the older generation and a friend of "Felix Oldboy." Southward of Kingsbridge lay Fordham Manor. The street called the Highbridge Road, leading from the Bronx side of Farmers' Bridge, was laid out on June 6, 1730, though the bridge was not built until 1759. A week later, in June, 1730, the road leading to the Fordham meeting-house was ordered. This was the old Dutch church which stood near the junction of the Fordham Landing, or Berrien's Landing, and the Macomb's Dam roads, or on the grounds of Webb's Academy near the present Sedgwick Avenue. A road also extended before the Revolutionary War from that section to Morrisania opposite Harlem. It was approximately on the line of Aqueduct Avenue, and crossed Cromwell's Creek about East 169th Street, or not far from "Judge Smith's" on Jerome Avenue, thence following the lines of Walton and Mott avenues to Morrisania, but probably through farms and private property. The lower part of Jerome Avenue was built by Robert Macomb as a leader to his bridge from the road described, both being known as the Macomb's Dam Road. A considerable portion of this road from Featherbed Lane is still called Macomb's Road; it connected Fordham with Devoe's Point. Featherbed Lane is a road connecting Aqueduct Avenue from near the borough end of the Washington Bridge with Jerome Avenue down a steep and winding way. Different stories are told as to the origin of the peculiar name. One is that during the Revolution the inhabitants living along the road contributed their feather beds for the use of the patriots. A second is that the road was of so spongy a material that to walk on it was like walking on a feather bed. A third is to the effect that the road was so exceedingly rough that to secure any degree of comfort in driving over it it was necessary to have a feather bed in the wagon for a seat—but this would answer equally well for all the colonial roads.

The Fordham Landing Road came under the care of the commissioners in May, 1768, as on the third of that month there is an entry in the ancient records to the effect that "Commissioners, at request of freeholders and inhabitants of that part of the Manor of Fordham lying upon the Harlem River to the south of the old Dutch church, viewed the road (laid out to the river by said church), beginning a little to the eastward of the said Dutch church, and thence running southerly as the said road runs to the landing at the back of the house now occupied by Charles Doughty on the patent to Turneur; and have at their re-

OLD GREEN BRIDGE OVER BRONX RIVER IN WHAT ARE NOW THE BOTANICAL GARDENS

quest now laid out the same road as for a publick highway, to be two rods wide, with privilege to hang gates on the same, provided they are kept in repair so as to swing with conveniency and not otherways." In early days another road led from the manor-house at Morrisania to the borough-town of Westchester. This probably followed the line of the present Lafayette Avenue, which was so called from the fact that the distinguished Frenchman passed over the lane to Boston after his visit at Morrisania in 1824. This lane must have joined the present Westchester Avenue near Fox's Corners, as the swamp and meadowland of the Bronx River would have prevented its continuance in a direct line. Westchester Avenue follows the line of the ancient road; this was laid out by the Westchester Turnpike Company after 1800. In 1729, the town authorities of Westchester ordered that a road should be laid out from the King's Road leading from Morrisania to "the landing-place below John Hunt's house." This probably refers to the Hunt's Point Road leading from Fox's Corners.

On account of the close connection between Westchester and Eastchester, there was very early a road connecting the two places—one following the old Indian trail. In the patent of Colonel Nicolls to the grantees of the "Ten Farms," the Westchester Path is specifically mentioned. This is called the Eastchester Road; it passes up the west side of Westchester Creek and joins the Boston Road of 1798 near where Corsa Lane comes from Williamsbridge. From the road connecting Westchester with Williamsbridge, a short distance from the crossing of the Boston, or Coles, road there is a road called the Sawmill Lane leading to Given's Creek, which enters the Hutchinson River near its mouth. It crosses the Eastchester Road north of the Pelham and Bronx Parkway; and from its name one must conclude that it led to a sawmill. In the will of the Reverend John Bartow, under date of June 24, 1725, we find him devising land in this neighborhood and describing it as "bounded on the north by the road leading to Thomas Haddon's sawmill." The old lane was wiped out in the plan of streets that was carried on.

A causeway and bridge stood across Westchester Creek, connecting the villages with Throgg's Neck, from a remote period. In the town records of Westchester, we find under date of July 9, 1678: "It is ordered that ye bridge betwixt Frogges Necke and ye Towne be maintained and upheld by a rate to be levied and assessed upon all persons and estates that are putt in the county rate belonging to the Township of Westchester, East Chester excepted." As there were a number of farms on Throgg's Neck there must have been a road leading to Westchester, where were the church, the courthouse, and such shops as then existed. Another important road through the middle of the borough

was that leading to White Plains, the county seat after 1759. It is still in existence, north from Bronxdale, passing through Olinville, Wakefield, Mount Vernon, and beyond. From Williamsbridge northward this highway and the Boston Road were one, until the latter swung off toward Eastchester at the head of the Black Dog Brook. The present White Plains Avenue was laid out about 1863, a little to the west of the old road in general, though passing over parts of it. The work of widening White Plains Avenue to a boulevard one hundred feet in width was begun in the autumn of 1902, after several years of consideration; it was finished in January, 1908. From below Laconia Park at the southern end of Williamsbridge, another old road leads to Westchester, passing to the eastward of the former Morris Park racetrack. As settlers took up farms along the Sound beyond Westchester, a road was laid out connecting with Pelham Manor. Eastchester Creek was crossed either by a ford or a ferry, probably the latter, as the tide runs too strongly at Pelham Bridge to make fording safe, except at slack water. The wooden bridge was not constructed until 1812. This road appears on the military map of the British operations in Westchester County in 1776, as do most of the others, but all with considerable inaccuracy. This highway, called Pelham Road, joins the Eastern Boulevard, or Shore Road, below Pelham Bridge, on the boundary line of the Pelham Bay Park. From near the Bartow station of the suburban branch of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad, a road leads down to Pell's Point (Rodman's Neck) and City Island, as it did in ancient days. The most northerly of the roads in this section is the Split Rock, or Prospect Hill, road, connecting the Shore Road with the old Boston Road by means of Wolf's Lane in the town of Pelham. It was the route of the retiring Americans during the battle of Pell's Point.

This, then, is a fair description of the principal roads of the borough, which existed somewhat over a century ago. We may say, generally, that in the earlier days the roads radiated from two points: the ancient wading place, ferry, or bridge at Fordham, or Kingsbridge, and from the borough-town of Westchester. All travelers from Manhattan Island to the mainland had to cross Spuyten Duyvil Creek from which the roads radiated like the ribs of an open fan—to Yonkers or Albany, to the Mile Square, to Boston or nearer points, to West Farms, or to Westchester. The borough-town of Westchester was also the county-seat until 1759; and in consequence roads from all sections of the county led to it. By the above date the upper county had become so settled as to make it a hardship for the freeholders to go to the southern extremity at Westchester. The Provincial Assembly, therefore, transferred the county-seat to White Plains, a point nearer the centre of

population as well as area. Through the different generations the names of the same roads have changed quite frequently, so that it is sometimes quite difficult to trace some of them under their various aliases. The Highbridge Road, for instance, could not have been called such until after the construction of High Bridge in the period of from 1839 to 1842, yet it existed in very early times. After 1813 a part of it was called Macomb's Dam Road, and was so spoken of in deeds and records. The map of the roads, compiled by Stephen Jenkins to whom we are indebted for the accompanying information, though not absolutely exact as to scale, is near enough to give an idea of the general direction of the principal highways.

It is a cardinal principle of the common law that every landholder is entitled to get to and from his land. In this way, as more farms were occupied, there grew up a multitude of private lanes and roads, of which many in time became public highways, maintained at the public expense, or by tolls, if maintained by the owners of abutting property or by other persons. This permission "to hang gates" appears in a number of cases in the records of the highway commission. Most of the roads of the borough began first as private roads to get to property. After 1850, when the newly built railroads had brought in such a population as to admit of the incorporation of villages, the laying out of highways became more systematic in each locality. That there was no general system can be understood readily by a glance at the map of the borough as it is today, with its intricacies of winding streets and avenues going apparently in all directions. Of course the topography of the borough has affected the course of the streets to a very large degree. One of the greatest problems that confronted the Commissioner of Highways of The Bronx, or of Street Improvements, as he was officially known, was to whip the chaos of roads into some sort of systematic arrangement. This is being done gradually in accordance with a plan which has been developing since January 1, 1893, and which has been completed only since 1903. In accordance with this plan, during the last couple of decades, blasting, grading, cutting down of hills, and filling in low places and quagmires have been going on in all portions of the borough. Should a person familiar with a locality where such changes are going on visit it a year or two later, he would find it developed into wide, well-paved streets, lined with solid blocks of residences, factories or stores. A notable street improvement of recent years is the Grand Boulevard and Concourse, which is a great highway extending from Gerard Avenue and East 161st Street to the Gun Hill Road, a distance of nearly four miles. The road is 182 feet wide, and is to serve as a link between Manhattan and the park system of the borough. The idea of the road originated with Louis J. Heintz,

the first Commissioner of Street Improvements, as far back as 1890; but the preliminaries were not completed and ground broken until October 1, 1902, and the Concourse was not officially opened until November 24, 1909. There are residents of The Bronx who claim that when it is completed it will be the most magnificent boulevard in the world.

Transportation on Land—In colonial days everybody rode on horseback and this was the usual method of getting from place to place. The women rode on a pillion behind a man, the pillion being a pad, or additional saddle, behind the regular saddle, upon which the woman sat comfortably and safely, as she could hold on to the rider in front, as well as have a stirrup by which to steady herself. Many of the horses were of fine breed, and the wealthy gentlemen kept horses for hunting and racing. Some of the well-to-do had a coach and four with liveried footmen and outriders, and so traveled in great style, even if not in much comfort on account of the badness of the roads. In his tale of Satanstoe, Cooper describes the arrival in New York of Patroon Van Rensselaer of Albany, and how the whole younger population, and a good many of their elders, went out to the Bowery Lane to see the great landowner come into town in his big travelling coach. A two-wheeled, springless gig or carriage was the usual vehicle of the farmer when not riding on horseback. The country doctor made his rounds on horseback, carrying his instruments and drugs in saddlebags.

There were no regular mails before 1673, though letters were carried by travelers or by special messengers. In that year, Governor Francis Lovelace authorized the establishment of a monthly post between New York and Boston in order to increase the intercourse between the two colonies. The postman was a sworn messenger, and was required to direct travelers who might choose to accompany him to the best roads and the most commodious stopping-places; he also was to select the most convenient places for leaving letters and packets and for gathering up the same. He was obliged to make the round trip within a month. This scheme of Governor Lovelace did not succeed, and so the first mail route was abandoned after a short trial. It was revived by Governor Dongan in 1685, and a charge of three pence was fixed for carrying a letter one hundred miles or less, and for a greater distance proportionately. In 1698 there was a regular weekly post to and from Boston. In 1704 Mrs. Sarah Knight made the journey and she has left lively impressions of her experiences and the dangers that beset her. In 1708 Lord Cornbury writes: "From Boston there is a Post by which we can hear once a week in summer, and once a fortnight in winter." In 1754 Benjamin Franklin was made Postmaster General of the colo-

nies, and the post was established weekly, both in winter and summer, and letters which left Philadelphia on Monday morning reached Boston on Saturday night. The post-riders were reliable men, and they had to be as they often carried large sums of money.

In the early days the mails were carried on horseback and travelers followed the same method of travel, or used a private carriage; but in July, 1772, Jonathan and Nicholas Brown, of New York, established a stage-coach between New York and Boston. The trip at first was made every fortnight, but the enterprise met with so much encouragement that before long two and three trips were made each week. The fare was 4d New York, or 3d lawful, money per mile, and baggage was carried at a reasonable rate. A stage was also established to Rye, in Westchester County, and trips were made three times a week. The stages were of that heavy, lumbering, canvas-topped variety, known as the Conestoga wagon, which later became so famous on the western plains with its motto of "Pike's Peak, or Bust." The route from New York was by way of the Bowery Lane, McGowan's Pass, the Kingsbridge Road to Spuyten Duyvil Creek, thence by way of Williamsbridge to Eastchester, and thence by way of New Rochelle, Stamford, and other towns along the Sound to New Haven. The Connecticut River constituted a barrier between Saybrooke and Old Lyme, so that the stages were obliged to go by way of Hartford and Springfield.

Macadam had not yet revolutionized road-making; and so even the best of these old roads were quagmires in wet weather, and fetlock deep in dust in dry. Many of the streams had to be forded, or crossed by ferries, bridges coming later with increase of travel. Notwithstanding the establishment of post roads, and the later introduction of stage-coaches, the favorite manner of traveling long distances was either by horse or sloop, the latter especially suiting the leisurely traveler of that day. In the trip between New York and Albany, the sloops came to anchor every night, and the journey frequently lasted a week. The same is true of the trip to the east, the inlets and harbors on both sides of the Sound furnishing safe and comfortable anchorages at night; but it has to be remembered that there were no lighthouses along these thoroughfares to guide the mariner at night. Stages were also run from the outlying villages to Morrisania and Harlem; and later, in the nineteenth century, when the steamboats began to run, these stages connected with the boats plying to the city. A hand-bill of 1830 reads as follows:

New York, West Farms, and West Chester STAGE.

Stephen Valentine Respectfully informs the inhabitants of West Chester and West Farms that he has commenced running a line of POST COACHES to the

above places, and hopes by strict attention, together with good horses and safe Carriages, to meet with a liberal support.

Leave Westchester every day at A. M., and No. 18 Bowery, New York, at half past P. M.

Fare to West Farms, 50 Cts.
Westchester, 62½Cts.

Winter Arrangement.

Coming of the Railways—Anterior to the days of the elevated railroads a favorite route was by means of the fast boats running on the East River to Peck Slip, Manhattan, from Harlem Bridge. People who have seen the "Sylvan Lake," the "Sylvan Dell," or the "Sylvan Stream," or the rival boats, "Harlem" and "Morrisania," upon the waters of the St. Lawrence, the St. John's River in Florida, or Chesapeake Bay, have recalled also the pleasant sail through the East River, with the beautiful estates lining its banks, not then outlined against the sky with towering skyscrapers and tenements. Smaller boats used to ply upon the Harlem River as far as Kingsbridge, and this, too, within the last decade of the nineteenth century. After the railroad was built through the borough the stages used to carry passengers from outlying sections to the stations along the railroad, a great convenience, as about 1840 to 1850 many well-to-do New York merchants began to purchase estates in the borough and to erect fine residences; and the railroad and the stages combined made them easily accessible.

The successful establishment of a railroad between Baltimore and Ellicott's Mills in Maryland, and of the Mohawk Valley Railroad, the ancestor of the New York Central, turned the attention of both civil and mechanical engineers and of capitalists to the possibilities of the new method of travel; and a craze for railroad building began, which, with the United States Bank troubles and some others, helped to bring on the financial panic of 1837. One of the earliest of these railroads to be incorporated was the New York and Harlem, April 25, 1831, with a capital of $350,000, increased the following year to $500,000, with the stipulation that the road should be completed to the Harlem River by 1835. This company was authorized to build a railroad upon the island of Manhattan only, by way of the Bowery and Fourth Avenue. The engineering difficulties to be overcome were too much for the engineers of that day, and notwithstanding the stipulation as to the completion of the road by 1835 it was little more than started by that date. On April 17, 1832, the New York and Albany Railroad was incorporated for the purpose of building a road from the end of Fourth Avenue, Manhattan, to Albany. This company met with no success in raising money for its construction; and on the principle of two people who have nothing getting married to share their united poverty, the later company surrendered its Westchester County rights to the earlier company,

and the two combined in 1838 as the New York and Harlem Railroad. The Legislature of 1840 affirmed the contract between the two companies, and further authorized the construction of a bridge over the Harlem River, and the extension of the road to Putnam County. By this last date the country had begun to recover from the panic of 1837, so that by the time the extension had begun through Westchester County more funds were forthcoming, and the capital was increased to $1,950,000, and $1,000,000 more was needed to carry the road to the county line.

The first portion of the road above the Harlem River was to extend to White Plains. The easiest route was found to be by way of the valley of the Mill Brook to Williamsbridge, whence the valley of the Bronx River was followed to White Plains, a distance of fifty miles. By this route not much grading was necessary, nor was there required much blasting through rock. Several bridges were needed, which, however, did not give the engineers much trouble, as the spans were short. This was not the case, however, with the bridge over the Harlem River, which for a long time was a hard nut for the engineers to crack.

The road was a single-track one, and was finished to Fordham by October, 1841, to Williamsbridge by 1842, and to White Plains by the end of 1844. It thus passed through the towns of Morrisania, West Farms and Fordham, Yonkers, and Eastchester within the borough. "The first running of the trains through the country was a matter of great curiosity and crowds of people surveyed them from the surrounding hills," said an old employee of the company. Celebrations were held to commemorate the completion of the road; and at one of them the following toast was offered: "The locomotive, the only good motive for riding a man upon a rail." The completion of the railroad gave an impetus to the section through which it passed, and the growth of the borough may be dated from 1842, the lower portions building up first as being nearer the great city. The Harlem Railroad and the New York and New Harlem, the latter being the lessee, were supposed to have equal rights in the freight station which both occupied at Centre, White, Franklin, and Elm streets, upon the site later occupied by the Criminal Courts Building, north of the Tombs prison. The New Haven Road had a regular passenger station at Broadway and Canal Street, at that time (1840-1850) near the heart of the city; while the Harlem road transported its passengers in its own street cars to Twenty-seventh Street and Fourth Avenue, where the locomotives of both roads were attached, the heavy coaches of the New Haven road being hauled from Canal Street by teams of four or six horses. In the middle of the year 1857 the block bounded by Fourth and Madison avenues and by Twenty-sixth and Twenty-seventh streets became the joint passenger

station of the two railroads, and continued so until the erection of the Grand Central Station at Forty-second Street. For a number of years previous to the removal the use of steam locomotives was forbidden below Forty-second Street, and both roads were obliged to haul their coaches by four-horse and six-horse teams up Fourth Avenue, through the Park Avenue tunnel to its upper end, where the trains were made up and the locomotives attached.

During the session of 1869-70 the Legislature authorized the erection of the Grand Central Station and the tunnel work on Park Avenue. In the summer of 1870 the Harlem and the Hudson River railroads took possession of the new station; but, owing to differences between them and the New Haven road, the last continued to use the Twenty-seventh Street station for about a year and a half longer. Then the site was taken for the Madison Square Garden. The freight station at Franklin Street was used for several years after this, the freight cars being hauled through Fourth Avenue and the Bowery by means of horses until the lease of the premises expired, when the Harlem freight went to the old Hudson River yards at Thirtieth Street and Tenth Avenue and to St. John's Park, and that of the New Haven went to the water front on South Street and to the yards at North New York and Port Morris, both within the borough.

It is thus observed how the passenger station worked its way uptown. The congestion of trains in the Park Avenue tunnel and the enormous passenger traffic concentrated in the Grand Central Station called forth the best efforts of the engineers of the railroads, and a scheme of improvements, involving the spending of many millions of dollars, was put underway at the Grand Central Terminal, issuing in a railroad structure the grandeur of which has no equal elsewhere on earth. Notwithstanding the magnitude of the work and the outpouring of millions of dollars there are farseeing men who believe that these great improvements will be comparatively temporary and that the main terminal will have to be moved eventually above the Harlem. But we hardly think that this generation would see anything like that. In view of this possibility, however, the North Side Board of Trade submitted a scheme to the proper authorities in the fall of 1902, before work was begun at the terminal, for a grand union station on the Harlem River, with Third and Fourth avenues and East 138th Street as its other boundaries. This site in the view of some would be convenient for all the existing trolley lines on Third Avenue, for the suburban branch of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad, for the Westchester and Boston electric railroad, and for the completed and proposed subways, while connections could be made with the Second Avenue and Third Avenue elevated railroads at a comparatively small expense.

In the beginning the Harlem Railroad was a single track road, but its business increased to so great an extent that in 1852, it was double-tracked for the first seventeen miles of its length. The enormously increasing business of both the Harlem and New Haven roads below Woodlawn compelled the Harlem road to quadruple its tracks from that station to the Harlem River. This was accomplished in the fall of 1891 by the widening of the roadbed, the sinking of the tracks, and the building of retaining walls at an expense of about $2,000,000. The Port Morris branch was practically completed at the same time, though there had been a single track for upwards of forty years. The great steel bridge over the Harlem River, carrying four tracks, the first ever so constructed, was erected at the same time at a cost of $951,398.17. The length of the bridge was made 706 feet, its width fifty-six feet, with a draw the length of 389 feet. In addition to its more than one hundred miles of track within the borough the Central road has a great yard at Melrose, containing fifty-five acres, for the storage of extra cars and motors, as well as a freight yard for Bronx freight. The maximum passenger rate under the general railroad laws of 1848 and 1850 was three cents a mile.

On May 12, 1846, the Hudson River Railroad was chartered by the State, but work did not begin until the following year. The plan was for the road to follow very closely the east bank of the Hudson River from the station at Thirtieth Street and Tenth Avenue, Manhattan, to the towns of Greenbush and East Albany, opposite the capital city. By November, 1847, the contractors had begun work on the various sections of the roadbed; but the difficulties of waves and tides from the river and the hard cutting through the rocky promontories on the line of the road caused numerous delays. The work was pushed with energy, but the contractors could not get their men to work at night; and the enjoyment of the laborers themselves was frequently enhanced by the scrimmages which occurred between the Corkonians and the Far Downs, the lusty Gaels who constituted the gangs of workmen repeating in New York some of the frolics which grew out of the attempt of the foreigner to rule on the old sod. The directors, however, made allowances to the contractors for the unforeseen delays. As planned and built the road was double-tracked as far as Poughkeepsie. Travel began to Peekskill on September 29, 1849, and to East Albany, October 13, 1851. The New York Central Railroad was authorized on April 2, 1851, and its organization perfected on August 1, 1853. Its charter was issued for the purpose of consolidating all the roads between Albany and Buffalo and Suspension Bridge. Among these minor roads was the Mohawk and Hudson, the oldest railroad in the State, chartered in 1826 and opened on September 12, 1831. On November 1, 1869, the

Hudson River and the New York Central railroads were consolidated under the name and title of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company.

The Spuyten Duyvil and Port Morris Railroad was chartered on April 24, 1867. Its length is 6.04 miles and it connects the Harlem Railroad at the Melrose yards with the Hudson River Railroad at Spuyten Duyvil. Its cost was $989,000; and it was leased by the Central road on November 1, 1871, until December 31, 1970, at an annual rental of eight per cent on its cost. It was necessary for the lessee to have control of this road in order to get to the Grand Central Station in 1870. It was about the same time that the Central secured control of the Harlem Railroad. For many years the passage of the railroad through Kingsbridge on the surface made several of the most dangerous road and street crossings in the State. The course of the road-bed was very tortuous. In order to overcome this the route was changed in February, 1906, so that the roadbed thereafter crossed Spuyten Duyvil Creek on a causeway and followed the ship-canal to the Hudson River, its bed being on a shelf blasted out of the northern side of the canal. Beginning in 1905, the work of changing the motive power of the Harlem road from steam to electricity was begun. The first train propelled by the new power ran from New York to Wakefield on January 28, 1907. The third-rail system is used. On February 16 of the same year the White Plains and Brewster Express, while rounding the curve at 206th Street, below Williamsbridge, at a speed of over fifty miles an hour, suddenly left the tracks, owing, it is supposed to the spreading of the rails and twenty-three people were killed and over seventy badly injured.

The construction of these roads, while giving access to the western part of the Borough of The Bronx, has had no such effect in increasing population as had the building of the Harlem road through the middle of the borough. Private estates and domains of considerable size began to appear in Riverdale, Spuyten Duyvil, and Kingsbridge, which have striven to keep their rural character, though the march of improvements and the real estate operator have in large part divested them of this characteristic. The next railroad to be constructed within the borough was the New York and New Haven Railroad, which was chartered in Connecticut. Work was begun at this end of the road in 1847; and on December 25, 1848, the first train, filled with directors and their guests, passed over the road between its termini. The road comes from New Haven and joins the Harlem road at Wakefield, and then continues over the Harlem tracks to the station in New York City. Its only station within the borough is Woodlawn, so that it has not done much in the way of developing this part of the borough. It was

consolidated with the New Haven and Hartford Railroad in 1872, under the name of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad. It is a curious fact that when this railroad began to run its trains the passengers were booked as in the days of the stage-coaches, and the conductors were obliged to report the names of the passengers to the company.

The Harlem River and Port Chester Railroad was incorporated in 1872, with a right of way from the Harlem River to Port Chester, the last village in the county of Westchester on the Sound. It was immediately leased by the New York and New Haven road and its construction begun. It is usually spoken of as the Suburban, or Harlem, division of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford. Speaking generally, its route follows the shore of the Sound to New Rochelle on the main line. Its station and yards at the Harlem River occupy the site of the house, barns, and home farm of Jonas Bronk, and the manor-house of the Morrises; and on the East River they occupy Oak Point, known in earlier days as Leggett's Point. Access is had to Manhattan by means of the elevated railroad. The length of the road is eleven and one-half miles, but with sidings and other tracks the entire trackage runs well over one hundred miles. The possession of this branch gives the New York, New Haven, and Hartford an outlet for its freight business, as the length of water front controlled by it on the East River gives ample space for its car floats and freight yards. In addition, several through passenger trains are run on board large steam ferry-boats, and transported to the connecting roads in New Jersey without putting travelers to the inconvenience of transfers through the city of New York. The road has been connected with the Long Island Railroad, and has thus access to the Pennsylvania Station, this being effected by means of a bridge across the East River to Queen's Borough by way of Randall's and Ward's islands. The corporation constructing the bridge and road is known as the New York Connecting Railway. It was estimated in the beginning that the work would involve an expenditure of about $20,000,000, but this has been greatly exceeded. The link with the Long Island system binds New England and the entire system of the Pennsylvania Railroad together. The corporation constructing the bridge and road was the New York Connecting Railway. The American Bridge Company, the contractor, began the work in the autumn of 1911.

While the construction of the Hudson River Railroad called for a good deal of blasting and cutting down, that of the Suburban branch demanded the reverse; since owing to the low lands and meadows abounding on the eastern side of the borough a great deal of the Suburban roadbed had to be filled in. Its construction has been one of the

factors in the development of the eastern part of the borough. Work was begun in 1903 to increase the road to six tracks and to install electric traction. This entailed an enormous amount of work and the construction of numerous heavy steel bridges to carry streets across the tracks, but work of that kind is, of course, never quite finished.

The mutations of the Putnam division of the New York Central and the Hudson River Railroad have been very numerous. On July 3, 1877, the New York, Westchester, and Putnam Railroad Company was organized as a successor in part of the New York, Boston, and Montreal Railway, organized in 1871. On February 18, 1878, the New York City and Northern was organized, and acquired under lease the property of this road. On July 21, 1879, the West Side and Yonkers Railway was organized. On July 8, 1880, the Yonkers Rapid Transit Railway Company was organized. On June 4, 1881, the Yonkers Rapid Transit Company, New York division, was organized. On October 11, 1887, the New York and Northern Railway was organized after the sale under foreclosure of the New York City and Northern Railway Company, and by consolidation with the two above-mentioned roads, May 1, 1890, it also acquired under lease the West Side and Yonkers Railway.

Under judgment of foreclosure against the New York and Northern Railway Company its property and franchises were sold, on December 28, 1893, and conveyed January 12, 1894, to J. Pierpoint Morgan, J. Hood Wright, and Charles H. Coster as joint tenants. The same day, they organized the New York and Putnam Railroad, under two acts of the Legislature of June 7, 1890, and May 12, 1892, and conveyed all property and franchises to the new company. On January 30, 1894, the New York and Putnam Railroad was leased by the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad at an annual rental of four per cent on first mortgage consolidated gold bonds to the sum of $5,000,000 of principal, and upon $1,200,000 to be issued to retire the five per cent bonds of the New York and Northern Railway Company. After all these vicissitudes the road became the Putnam division of the leasing company. The intent of the original projectors of the road was to connect at Brewster in Putnam County, with roads for Boston and Montreal. Its southern terminus was at High Bridge; but the West Side and Yonkers Railroad was organized to build an extension of one and one-sixteenth miles to the Harlem River to connect with the elevated railroads by means of a bridge at 155th Street. As early as 1871 a considerable portion of the right of way was purchased, and some grading done, but owing to financial difficulties and reorganization the road was not opened to traffic until the spring of 1881. A branch from Van Cortlandt Park connects with Yonkers by means of half-hourly

rapid transit trains. The Putnam road opened up High Bridge, Morris Dock, Morris Heights, University Heights, Kingsbridge, and Van Cortlandt Park. Though run at a loss during its earlier years, under the later lessee it began to pay more than its expenses. The cost of the road a few years ago amounted to $11,700,000, an average of nearly $206,000 for every one of its 58.88 miles to Brewster's, even though it was single track.

Street Car Companies—With the passage of the State Railroad Act of 1830 a number of street car lines were formed and articles of association filed, though very little appears to have been accomplished in the years that immediately followed. Among those later companies were: the New York and Westchester Railroad Company, September 24, 1859; New York and Yonkers Railroad Company, October 17, 1859; Union Railroad Company of Westchester, December 15, 1859; Port Morris and Westchester Railroad Company, April 2, 1864; and the Third Avenue and Fordham Railroad Company, on the same date. The president of all these companies was David Milliken, and the leading name of each of the board of directors was Gouverneur Morris. The last of these companies was incorporated under Chapter 143 of the laws of 1860, to authorize the construction of railway and tracks in West Farms, Westchester, Eastchester, New Rochelle, Yonkers, and Morrisania. The road was to extend from Harlem Bridge to Fordham, via Third Avenue, but as the road was not completed by December 11, 1862, its charter became extinct. The rest of the companies held on to their charters and were built, more or less, subsequently.

The Third Avenue and Fordham Railroad had a natural successor in the Harlem Bridge, Morrisania, and Fordham Railroad Company, incorporated in 1863, with a route from the bridge to Fordham via Third Avenue. This was the first street railway in the borough. According to the report filed at the end of 1864 by its president, John B. Haskins, five miles of road had been built at a cost of $158,749.22 and 571,450 passengers had been carried. The road was capitalized at $300,000, of which $72,000 was paid up; the outstanding indebtedness of $88,000 bore interest at seven per cent. It owned seventeen first-class and two second-class cars, which traveled by horse-power at the rate of six and one-half miles an hour, including stops, or seven miles an hour while in motion. The rates of fare were as follows:

Harlem Bridge to Morrisania	5 cents.
Harlem Bridge to Tremont	8 cents.
Harlem Bridge to Fordham	10 cents.

In 1865 the fare to Morrisania was increased to six cents, and the average rate of speed decreased to six miles an hour.

This was the rate of progress according to the report. As a matter of fact on very stormy nights the cars did not run at all, or at such infrequent intervals as to be useless as a means of transportation. The roadbed was so poor that very often, when the driver attempted to put on a spurt of speed, there would be a sudden jar and stoppage, and the passengers would have to help to lift the car on the track. So frequent were the mishaps and delays that a writer in the "New York Herald," in 1864, spoke about getting off the cars at such times to pick up huckleberries. There was a convenient and handy nickname, and the Huckleberry Road it became at once; a name which was applied to the whole system of street-cars in the borough, and which became notorious under the wide powers granted to the "Huckleberry System" by the act of the Legislature of 1892, authorizing the incorporation of the Union Railway Company.

The earliest extension of the horse-car service was in 1870, when two cars were run between Third Avenue and West Farms by way of the Boston Road. Later, other extensions were made, both in the days of the horse and in the days of the trolley, until the borough became fairly gridironed with street-car surface lines, most of which gave and took transfers to and from other connecting or crossing lines. The trolley or electric motive power was first introduced in October, 1892. The street-car service in time extended from Harlem River northward from three points, Harlem Bridge, Central Bridge, and Kingsbridge, though cars cross the Madison Avenue, the Lenox Avenue, and the Washington bridges. The most important of these radiating points is Harlem Bridge, over which many lines pass from their terminus at 125th Street and Third Avenue, Manhattan. These lines go over a part of Third Avenue for a greater or lesser distance before diverging to their special destination. Until the spring of 1908, an additional fare of three cents would secure a transfer to or from the elevated. The whole system of the borough was under the Union Railway Company, or the "Huckleberry Road," until January, 1898, when the Third Avenue Company secured control. The Third Avenue and leased lines were in their turn, leased to the Metropolitan Street Railway on April 13, 1900, for nine hundred and ninety-nine years. On November 25, 1901, the Interurban Railway Company secured control. The development of the system was, however, mainly due to the Union Railway Company. In January, 1904, the Interurban Company petitioned the county court of Westchester County to change its name to the New York Railway Company. During the decade from 1898 to 1908, all the railways of Manhattan and The Bronx were being manipulated by William C. Whitney and others, with the result that they came virtually under one management. The stock was enormously increased beyond any reason-

able relation to the actual value of the roadbeds, rolling stock, barns, power-houses, franchises, and earning capacity, so that in June, 1908, they went into the hands of receivers; and the transfers to and from the elevated and the Westchester Traction Company were abolished by the United States courts, though those with the Westchester Company were resumed in some cases.

Elevated and Underground Railways—The success that attended the operation upon Manhattan Island of the elevated railroads after 1870, turned the attention of engineers and capitalists to the possibilities of similar structures in the newly annexed district. Accordingly, April 5, 1880, articles of association were filed by the Harlem River and Port Chester Rapid Transit Company, under the general railroad laws of 1850, for the construction of a steam railway from East 129th Street and Second Avenue, Manhattan, to a point on Westchester Avenue, near the Bronx River, there dividing into two branches, one of which was to go to Hunt's Point. On October 19, 1880, the Suburban Rapid Transit Company was chartered under the Rapid Transit Act of 1875, relating to elevated railroads. On November 30, 1883, the New York, Fordham, and Bronx Railway Company filed articles of incorporation under the same act for the purpose of constructing a railroad in the Annexed District, to connect with the elevated railroads than running on Manhattan Island, and to extend to Bronxdale and Williamsbridge in two branches from Fordham. On March 17, 1886, the Suburban Rapid Transit Company acquired all the rights, franchises, and the like, of the last-named company and began the construction of an elevated road from East 129th Street, between Willis and Alexander avenues in the borough. The bridge over the Harlem River, generally known as the "Second Avenue Bridge," was opened to the public on May 17, 1886. In 1887, the line was continued to 161st Street, a distance of 2.16 miles from the Manhattan end. To 145th Street the road uses its own property, none of the streets being used except to cross over, and the tracks are constructed in the middle of the blocks between Willis and Alexander avenues. From 145th Street the elevated structure follows the line of Third Avenue. The next extension was made to Tremont, 177th Street, in July, 1891. Another extension was made to Pelham Avenue, Fordham, in 1900; and the last extension was made to Bronx Park through the grounds of Fordham University in 1902, thus making the total length of the line about five miles. Until August, 1891, to get from any place in the Annexed District to any place in Manhattan by elevated required the payment of two fares, or ten cents; but upon this date the Manhattan Company acquired the Suburban, and since that time the fare from the upper terminus of the road to the South Ferry has been five cents.

In the middle of the last century the subject of underground railways began to be discussed in New York City. In 1868, the New York Central Underground Railway was chartered; in 1872, the New York Rapid Transit Company, in which Cornelius Vanderbilt was interested, was chartered, and among other schemes was the Beach Pneumatic Railway Company, which actually built a section underground. All these companies, though granted full powers and excellent routes, failed to attract the necessary capital for their construction; and the building of the elevated railroads sidetracked the idea of underground railways for several years, or until 1884, when the discussion was resumed. In his message to the Common Council in January, 1888, Mayor Hewitt called the attention of the members to the subject of underground railways by stating that the existing railways of the city would soon be inadequate for the increasing traffic and that the construction of an underground railway was desirable and would soon thereafter be absolutely necessary. He suggested in view of the facts which he had presented that some scheme should at that time be devised to advance the credit of the city for building such roads, as a large amount of capital would be required. However, at that particular time nothing came of the mayor's suggestion. Clearly the idea was a novel one, and a good deal of reflection would have to be employed, before a plan could be elaborated and the implications of the plan followed to their consequences. In 1890, the Legislature enacted a rapid-transit bill affecting cities of over one million inhabitants. Under the provisions of this act, Mayor Grant appointed the first Rapid Transit Commission, which made a report, June 16, 1890, in favor of an underground railway. Routes were selected, soundings made, consents of property owners obtained, other property selected for condemnation by the Supreme Court, and, finally, the franchises were offered for sale, but no responsible bidder appeared; the plan, which had cost the city over $130,000, was dropped.

Three years later a responsible banking house offered to construct the road if the city would loan its credit to an amount not to exceed thirty million dollars; but ex-Mayor Hewitt pointed out that the city was forbidden by the constitution of the State to loan its credit for private enterprises, and that the city must own anything for which its credit was advanced. A bill embodying the ideas of Mr. Hewitt was passed by the Legislature and signed by Governor Flower on May 22, 1894. A new commission was appointed by the mayor, of which Alexander E. Orr was president, and William Barclay Parsons was chief engineer, both of whom held the same positions when the road was completed. The act authorized the use of the referendum at the election of November 6, 1894, to see whether the people were willing to increase

THE SECOND HOUSE BUILT IN TREMONT; THE HOUSE IN WHICH THE DUGAN AND KIRBY FAMILIES LIVED IN 1845

the city's indebtedness by the issue of bonds for the construction of the road, which was to be the property of the city. The vote showed 132,000 in favor of, and 43,000 opposed to the plan. It was not until January 14, 1897, that the routes were finally decided on and published; and it was not until January 15, 1900, that all legal difficulties having been overcome, the commission was able to open bids for the construction of the underground railway. There were two bidders; and the contract was awarded to John B. MacDonald, who offered to construct the underground railway for $30,000,000. The contracts were signed February 1, 1900, and the work was formally begun on March 26 by Mayor Van Wyck, who began the excavation in front of the City Hall. The work was divided into parts and these again into sections let to sub-contractors. No time was then lost in getting to work upon all sections of the road.

The subway, or underground rapid-transit railway, enters the Borough of The Bronx at three points: Kingsbridge, and in Morrisania by two routes, one just east of the Lenox Bridge over the Harlem, and the other just east of the Madison Bridge. At Kingsbridge the road is elevated, crossing the bridge over the Spuyten Duyvil Creek. The terminus of the Broadway branch of the subway is at 242nd Street and Van Cortlandt Park. The West Farms division crosses under the Harlem River in tubes at West 145th Street, Manhattan, the tracks emerging from the subway east of Third Avenue at 149th Street. From there to its terminus at West Farms and Boston Road it is an elevated structure, following Westchester Avenue and the Southern Boulevard. Work was started in the borough in the spring of 1901, and the road was formally opened for passenger traffic from City Hall to 145th Street, Manhattan, on October 27, 1904, and to the West Farms terminus on July 10, 1905.

The Interborough Rapid Transit Company was formed on April 1, 1903, by the interests engaged in building the subway for the purpose of controlling both the subway and the elevated railway. As their interests were thus made identical, the two roads began to issue transfers to each other at their crossing at Third Avenue and 149th Street. The contracting company had until September, 1904, to complete the construction of the road, after which it was required to lease the road from the city for a period of fifty years at a fixed annual rental. At the expiration of the lease the road with its entire equipment of power-houses, rolling stock, etc., becomes, according to the contract, the property of the city. The subway, which has been continually extended, proved from the beginning the most important factor in causing the large increase in the population of The Bronx. That even with the extensions that have been made it is still inadequate to the demands made upon

it is shown every day in the crowded conditions of the trains. The demand has been unanimous for years for the still wider extension and multiplication of the subway routes, but the rivalries of the Interborough and the Brooklyn Rapid Transit companies, the danger of going beyond the debt limit, and the difficulty of agreement among those in authority, the mayor, the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, the Board of Aldermen, and the Public Service Commission, have proved serious obstacles in the path of development. In recent years, despite these obstructions, the subway has been greatly extended, though without any near approach to the demands of the increasing problems of transportation. The borough watched with interest the planning and development of the new route on the east side of Manhattan, which was intended to do away with the large detour to the west side of the island. It received the name of the Broadway-Lexington Avenue route, because it starts in lower Broadway, but swings over to Lexington Avenue, which it follows to the Harlem River, over which it crosses in tubes. At East 138th Street and Park Avenue, the new subway divides into two branches of three tracks each; the Jerome Avenue branch, and the Southern Boulevard branch. The first named remains underground to River Avenue and East 157th Street, where it emerges from the ground and becomes elevated above Jerome Avenue, which it follows to Woodlawn, a distance of a little over six miles. The other route turns east under 138th Street as far as the Southern Boulevard, which it follows underground as far as Hunt's Point, where it swings under Whitlock Avenue, which it follows to a point south of Westchester Avenue. Here it emerges from the ground and becomes elevated over Westchester Avenue, which it follows to Pelham Bay Park, a distance of seven and one-fifth miles.

Work was begun on the different sections of the road in Manhattan in November, 1911, and the first work was started in The Bronx with appropriate ceremonies at Mott Avenue, just north of 138th Street on the morning of December 4, 1911. It was estimated that the road would be running at the expiration of two years following the beginning of the work, but needless to say it took very much longer. Another extension of the rapid-transit system was started when the Interborough agreed upon terms with the city for the extension from its terminus at West Farms by way of White Plains Avenue to near the city line. In 1898, W. C. Gotshall, an electrical engineer, conceived of the idea of an electric railway to run to Port Chester. It was organized under the laws of the State on April 5, 1901, and application was made to the railroad commissioners for a franchise. At the first public hearing strong opposition was manifested by the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad, the New York Central, the Union Railway Com-

pany, and the New York and Stamford. Mr. Gotshall stated what his company intended to do; and these statements he supported with the strongest kind of evidence, so that the citizens of the Borough of The Bronx and of Westchester County showed themselves almost unanimously in his favor. After the first hearing the opposing roads, with the exception of the New Haven, withdrew their opposition. Then followed a fight for several years. The New York, Westchester, and Boston Railroad then entered the field; but great doubt existed as to the value of the charter, which had expired, so it was alleged, because nothing had been done in the way of construction within the time specified by law.

The application of the Port Chester road to the Board of Aldermen of the city for permission to cross the streets of the borough on its own right of way was held up for over a year, while the application of the Boston and Westchester was granted almost at once. The reason given by one of the aldermen on the Committee on Railroads was "that the Port Chester Company had not convinced him of its financial responsibility, while the Westchester people came and showed they had the money." To others, who followed the various applications and proceedings for several years, it appeared that the Port Chester people, backed by the entire population of the sections through which the road would pass, tried to get its franchise without "buying" it from the authorities, while the Westchester road "showed" its money, to employ the aldermanic term, to the authorities and convinced them of its financial ability. However that may be, the Port Chester people offered so much to the city in the way of payment of its franchise that the Court of Appeals at last ordered that it should be granted, in accordance with the unanimous vote of the State Railroad Commissioners. Work was begun upon the roadbed on June 21, 1906, and large sums of money were spent, both in the borough and in Westchester County. Then, after months of work, everything suddenly stopped and nothing was done for the period of a year and more. Finally the public was informed through the press that both the contending roads had sold their franchises to the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad; and assurances came from President Mellen of that railroad in the latter part of January, 1909, that work would be resumed upon the construction of the electric elevated lines of the two roads, combined into one, at as early a date as would be convenient. The convenient day came sooner than most people expected, for work was resumed a short time afterwards. In the autumn of 1911, the railroad officials announced that the road would be running in February; but owing to the delay in receiving equipment, the first passenger trains were not run until May 29, 1912. At West Farms there is a great union station with the

subway, but the Port Chester road continues south over Walker Avenue and comes down to the level of the tracks of the Suburban branch of the New York, New Haven and Hartford, which it uses to the terminus of the Suburban branch. Northward from the union station at Adams Street and Morris Park Avenue, the Port Chester road parallels the latter for some distance, then crosses the old Morris Park race-track and continues straightway to the city line near old St. Paul's, Eastchester. The route is owned by the railroad company, and public streets are not used, though several have been closed at Van Nest, where the union station is located. There are no grade crossings on the road from beginning to end.

CHAPTER VIII

VILLAGES THEN WITHIN THE PRESENT BRONX

What is now The Bronx has only in recent times worn the aspect of unity that enables us to regard it as a single entity. Its area of forty-two square miles of variegated surface was not then so easily delimited as it is today. A distinct boundary and imprint had not been imposed upon it. It was more like the piece of sealing wax that had lain open to the accidental marks of time and wear than that sealing wax which had been made the base for a definite impression. What is now The Bronx grew merely as the most southerly part of a vast stretch of county territory. It received the overflow of Manhattan. It was a land of adventure for the first daring and curious spirits that crossed the Harlem stream to make a home deep in the woodland and deep in the wilderness. To the imagination of the founders of its first villages it was full of mystery. Through its corridor of trees a great continent lay beyond. One man followed another. A clearing was made and a hut erected on a likely spot. The first sparse settlements were made on the coasts, since passage by water to and from the lower part of Manhattan was easier than passage by land. None of the settlers ever dreamed that they were engaged in the making of a single city. To them Manhattan alone looked as big as many of the countries they had seen in Europe. Manhattan itself was in course of time dotted with numerous villages, as isolated and distinct and self-sustaining as Boston and New York appear today, and travel between them appeared almost as difficult. And as Manhattan became studded with villages, so what we call The Bronx became studded also. A single house in most cases would form the kernel. Other log cabins would follow and a cluster would be formed, and paths would naturally be beaten out by feet without design, later to become the lines the streets would follow. So the villages multiplied in a number that appears incredible to a generation that has come to regard the vast territory of the metropolis as one complex unity.

Through much the greater part of its history and indeed up to recent decades the territory of The Bronx preserved much of its rural aspect. It remained distinctly county territory rather than town territory. Wide unoccupied spaces separated its centres of population. That aspect it still in some degree retains, but the remnants of it are disappearing. The masonry of a civilization that has learnt to build miraculously with giant tools is chambering the borough from the Hudson to

the Long Island Sound. Soon the old nooks that spoke of a recent Arcadian simplicity will speak of those days no more, and the memory and the record will be called on to make an effort to picture the earlier Bronx as a fair carpet of trees and verdure which the hand of man had adorned with hamlets and stray habitations. The Bronx was then neither county nor borough. It was a vague woodland region, the rim of the "maine," as distinguished from the island of Manhattan, that was the continent of America. Then village reached out antennae to village and thus linked together and joined by bridges to Manhattan, inevitably became merged in the vast metropolis to the growth of which no eye exploring the future appears to be able to give a definite limit.

The Rustic Bronx—What has been said of Westchester County in its Arcadian simplicity may be applied to The Bronx territory which was the most southerly part of the county. "While the bolder beauties of the Hudson are not comprised within its limits, its territory adjacent to the borders of that classic stream has long been a favorite theme for song and story. Cooper, Paulding and Irving have drawn a rich store of literary material from within its confines, and the bold, original genius of Poe found much inspiration while the poet was roaming along the banks of the river or gazing from the windows of his little cottage at Fordham":

> The whole region of country bordering the Hudson River, north of Spuyten Duyvil was until within a very recent period occupied by isolated residences and grand estates, some of them embracing several thousand acres. Notable examples were the Philipse and Livingston manors, the titles to which came directly from the crown. Gradually these extensive tracts were sub-divided, leaving still, however, large areas in the possession of single individuals. Many of these smaller estates have undergone a process of improvement and embellishment, until the lordly mansions on the Hudson have become famed on both sides of the Atlantic for their beauty and picturesque surroundings. Art has done its share to add to the charms of the landscape. Here are the residences of many leading New Yorkers — elegant, comfortable homes, surrounded with tastefully ornamented grounds, and presenting all the evidences of that domestic enjoyment which is, after all, the sum of human happiness.

On the other side of the Borough of The Bronx, skirting the East River and Long Island Sound, a widely different panorama is presented, but one which also has individual charms and beauties of its own. The shore line is broken into many promontories or peninsulas and the general effect is diversified and beautiful. Westchester, a former township contiguous to New York City on the east, presents a rolling surface, with fine grass and pasture lands, which are abundantly watered by small streams and springs. The Bronx River, flowing through the middle of the township, is the principal stream, and along its banks are many beautiful localities. The general appearance of the

valley is romantic. East of Bronxdale is a low tract of land known as the Bear Swamp, which derives its name from the savage animal that formerly made its home in the morass. Throckmorton's Neck, between Westchester Creek and Pelham Bay, is the site of many handsome residences which command noble views of Long Island Sound. At its extremity stands Fort Schuyler, one of the defenses of New York City from approach by way of the Sound. Opposite City Island, on the northeast side of the point, are the well-known Stepping Stones, a line of rocks projecting from the Long Island shore, which become visible at low water. On the highest of them stands the light known as the "Stepping-Stone Light." On the northeast side of the point lies Locust Island, and on the south are handsome houses along the western shore of the East River. On the road from the point to old Westchester Village are many beautiful residences. On the eastern side of Westchester Creek, in Castle Hill Neck, stands the old Wilkins mansion, now a farmhouse, in which it is said three Loyalist clergymen, including the Rev. Dr. Seabury, afterwards bishop of Connecticut, were secreted during the Revolution. The town of Pelham, adjoining former Westchester Township on the east presents a singular variety of outline, due to the incorporation within its boundaries of Hunter's and City islands, which cause it to project far out into Long Island Sound. It is historically noted as the scene of the murder of the famous zealot Anne Hutchinson, who, fleeing from the stern Puritans of Massachusetts, settled either on Pelham Neck or in the immediate vicinity. Pelham Neck is the site of many handsome residences, chief among which for its historical interest is the Bowne dwelling, which stands on the spot once occupied by the manor-house of Thomas Pell, first lord of the Manor of Pelham, from which the township derives its name. Hunter's Island is connected with the mainland by a stone causeway and bridge. From the mansion, on about the middle of the island, a fine view is obtained.

Towns and Villages—Towns as such have existed from the earliest colonial times, but their powers were more specifically defined in 1849 by Chapter 194, passed by the Legislature of that year. The act mentioned gave power to the several Boards of Supervisors, except in New York County, by a two-thirds vote of the members elected, to divide or alter the bounds of any town or erect new ones, when such division does not place parts of the same townships in more than one Assembly district. Application for such division or change must first be made by at least twelve freeholders of each town affected by the division, and a notice of an intended application posted in at least five public places and published in all the county newspapers. A survey map of the town or towns thus affected must be filed in the secretary's office of the State, together with a certified copy of the act of the board. The

latter is published in the appendix to the laws of the following session. The Legislature still retains power to create towns by special act.

We will now try succinctly to tell something of the seventy or eighty villages that grew up within the present territory of The Bronx and which by natural growth and by the general merging of their suburbs have become the modern Bronx. The Borough of The Bronx as it exists today really represents the confederation of these old-time villages as the parishes of a city growing up separately have usually gone to the formation of a city. The Bronx of today therefore merely stands as the sum and development of these old villages after a commercial civilization had got in its work of compelling them to discard their rustic garb and don the vesture of the modern habiliments of industry, commerce, and material prosperity. It will be well perhaps to begin somewhere near the Harlem and try to follow the progress and the mutations that have marked the development of the territory from rusticity to the urban complexity, since the line of history and development has gone that way. But it will not be possible to follow any direct line, for we must turn to the right and left and curve and zigzag here and there and make an occasional leap, and some of the villages will have to be dealt with in small parcels since their development was intertwined. By the act of the State Legislature of March 7, 1788, all the counties of New York were divided into townships; what is now the Borough of The Bronx thus formerly was divided into the townships of Yonkers, Morrisania, Eastchester, Pelham and Westchester. What is now the territory of The Bronx envelops the whole of the historic townships of Morrisania and Westchester; it envelops only the more southerly parts of the historic townships of Yonkers, Eastchester, and Pelham. All these townships had villages of the same name as their kernel. The territory of the townships included in course of time many other villages of independent name.

The following are the names of the villages or settlements that formerely existed in the territory of what is now the Borough of The Bronx: Adamsville; Bartow; Baychester; Belmont; Bronxdale; Bronxwood Park; Carr Hill; Cedar Hill; Cherry Tree Point; City Island; Clason's Point; Cornell's Neck; Eastchester; East Morrisania; Edenwald; Eltona; East Melrose; Fairmount; Ferry Point; Fordham; Fort Schuyler; Givan Homestead; Goose Island; Grove Hill; Hart's Island; Highbridge; Hunt's Point; High Island; Hunter's Island; Inwood; Jacksonville; Jerome; Lacona; Locust Point; Ludlow Island; Melrose; Morrisania; Mott Haven; Mount Heights; Morris Park; Morris Heights; Mount Eden; Mount Pleasant; Mount St. Vincent; Mosholu; North New York; Olinville; Park Versailles; Pelham Neck; Pennyfield; Prospect Hill; Rodman's Neck; Schuylerville; Seton Homestead; South

Mount Vernon; South Melrose; South Fordham; South Belmont; Spuyten Duyvil; South Washingtonville; Stinardstown; Throgg's Neck; Twin Island; Unionport; Union Hill; Upper Morrisania; Van Nest; Wakefield; Washingtonville; Williamsbridge; Woodlawn; Woodstock; Westchester; West Farms; Tremont; East Tremont; Wardsville; West Morrisania; and Wright's Island. These names are of course given in their alphabetical order, and that order does not give any indication of their relative position. It is to be noted also that some of the names belong to islands rather than to villages, though the village is placed on the island. All these villages were included, of course, in the old townships into which what is now the territory of The Bronx was divided. They were included in Kingsbridge, which represented the most westerly part of The Bronx and which represented that portion of the Yonkers Township which was included in The Bronx; in Morrisania; in West Farms; in Westchester; in Eastchester; and in Pelham. We conceive that the best way of dealing with these villages is by going over the territory of the townships that included them. Some of them are important and formed indeed the core of the township itself. Others are so slight as hardly to be visible now or even when looked at in the environment which saw them at their most populous period. Some rather represent points and localities than sensible centres of population but a tour through the township that included them will reveal the environment in which they lay.

In the Township of Kingsbridge—Yonkers was a part of the Philipseburgh Manor and the part of the township within the borough was known as Lower Yonkers. It remained a part of the original township until June 1, 1872, when the city of Yonkers was incorporated. At the same time the portion of the township lying south of a line drawn from the northwest corner of the land belonging to the Sisters of Charity, known as St. Vincent de Paul, due east to the Bronx River, was set off as a new township under the name of Kingsbridge. It remained a part of the Yonkers township until December 16th of the same year, when the selection of town officers was perfected. Its northern boundary was the line given above, from the Hudson River to the Bronx; its southern, the northern line of the ancient manor of Fordham, from the Harlem River at East 230th Street to a point on the Bronx River between First and Second avenues, Williamsbridge, and Spuyten Duyvil Creek; its western, the Hudson River.

This Kingsbridge territory is historic ground. "With the possible exception of the Mohawk Valley, the Tyron County of colonial days and the Lake Champlain region, there is no section in New York State which possesses such romantic, legendary and historic interest as the county of Westchester, particularly the Kingsbridge section. One can-

not help feeling a thrill as one travels over this historic ground. Wherever one goes or wherever one looks, he finds something of historic interest." The Kingsbridge section was a bone of contention during the early part of the Revolutionary War. When the question of taking measures for the defense of the colonies was proposed in the Continental Congress, a discussion arose that was long and earnest, for many members yet hoped for reconciliation. On the very day that a British reinforcement at Boston with Howe, Clinton and Burgoyne entered the harbor, Duane, of New York, moved, in the Committee of the Whole, the opening of a negotiation, in order to accommodate the disputes existing between Great Britain and the colonies, and that this be made a part of the petition to the king. But more determined spirits prevailed, and a compromise was reached on May 25, 1775, when directions were sent to the Provincial Congress at New York to preserve the communications between the city of New York and the country by fortifying posts at or near Kingsbridge. The Provincial Congress at New York appointed a committee consisting of Captain Richard Montgomery, Henry Glenn, Robert Yates and Colonels James Van Cortlandt and James Holmes, these last two of Westchester County, both of whom later became loyalists, "to view the ground at or near Kingsbridge, and report to this Congress whether the ground near Kingsbridge will admit of making a fortification there, that will be tenable."

The committee reported June 3, 1775, and recommended that a post of three hundred men be established on Marble Hill, and selected sites on Tetard's Hill to the east on Tippett's Hill to the west of the bridge for the establishment of redoubts to be built by the troops. About two hundred and fifty cannon of all shapes, sizes and material were dragged from the city to Kingsbridge, Williamsbridge and Fordham Manor.

However, the story of Kingsbridge goes much further back than the date of the Revolutionary War. There is for example the journal of Sarah Knight, who made the trip on horseback between the cities of Boston and New York in the depths of winter during 1704, taking a fortnight to accomplish the journey. Being compelled on account of the bad condition of the roads to travel on horseback her returning route lay up the old King's Bridge Road on the upper part of Manhattan Island, thence across old King's Bridge itself. Here the two early roads branched. One of them, the Albany Post Road—erected in 1669 and perhaps the oldest road in this part of the country—extended north along the east bank of the Hudson. For many miles it is known as the "Old Post Road," and in other places as "Broadway." At King's Bridge the "Boston Post Road"—built in 1672—branched towards the east, crossing the Bronx River at William's Bridge and reaching New Rochelle by a circuitous route. It was along this latter highway that

Mrs. Knight traveled. Part of it is in existence yet though known by a variety of names. Near Kingsbridge it is styled "Boston Avenue," and must not be confused with the present Boston Road that was laid out much later, and which, crossing the Harlem Bridge, extends almost in a straight course nearly to New Rochelle, where it meets the old Boston Post Road.

On her way back to Boston Mrs. Knight left New York "with no little regret." About five in the afternoon she reached "Spiting Devil, else King's Bridge, where they pay three pence for passing over with a horse." Mrs. Knight tells us that "being come to Mr. Havens I was very civilly received and courteously entertained. But I could get no sleep because of the clamor of some of the Town topers in the next Room. I set my candle by the chest on the bedside, and setting up, composed my resentment in the following manner:

> I ask thy aid, O Potent Rum,
> To charm these wrangling Topers Dum,
> Thou hast their giddy Brains possest
> The man confounded with the Beast,
> And I, poor I, can get no rest.
> Intoxicate them with thy fumes;
> O, still their Tongues till morning comes.

And I know not but my wishes took effect, for the dispute soon ended with tother dram, and so good night."

Old King's Bridge itself is said to have stood just east of the present structure and to have been built in 1693. A wading place was near by. Not to be daunted by the tolls imposed on those that crossed King's Bridge, the people erected another, about 1759, a little below, called variously, the Free, the Farmer's, or Dyckman's Bridge. The rates of toll for the King's Bridge were:

"1 Penny for each head of neat cattel.

2 Penns for each mann or horse.

12 Penns for each score of hoggs and sheep passing the bridge.

9 Penns for every boat, vessell or canoo that shall pass the said bridge and cause the same to be drawne up."

Picturesquely hidden behind a forest of its own stands one of Kingsbridge's oldest houses, the Macomb mansion. This was the old tavern of colonial days, at whose doors the early travelers halted for rest and refreshment. The King's Bridge itself was styled the "barrier" and this old hostelry the "watch tower" of Revolutionary times. Although many changes have been made in its appearance it is still the same old structure, built at an age when the Indian was the principal resident of the region, and it is said to antedate the Van Cortlandt mansion itself.

Following the line of the old Albany Road the path of travel is through the famous Neutral Ground, the scene of many depredations in

Revolutionary times. Numerous cases are related where the "Skinners" and "Cowboys" subjected defenceless persons to the most cruel tortures in order to compel them to give up their money. It seemed a favorite pastime to hang a man until apparently dead, then restore him to consciousness, repeat the experiment, and finally abandon him for dead. A certain peaceable Quaker, living near Kingsbridge, was once visited by some of these desperate characters, who called for his money, and when they got it demanded more. The old man declared he had no more. Whereupon they dragged him outside and hanged him to a tree, cut him down and repeated the operation a second and even a third time, at last leaving him almost lifeless. Standing in the lower part of the Neutral Ground was a well-known tavern called the Old French Inn. It was once attacked by the "Cowboys," who received such a shower of bullets that they fled in the greatest haste, carrying with them one of their number who had been wounded. While approaching Kingsbridge it soon became apparent that their comrade could not last long. So, under the shade of an apple orchard they stopped to rest, only to discover that he had died. Quickly picking up the body again, they bore it to a well nearby, and letting it slip into the dark waters, continued on in their mad flight. Next morning imagine the surprise and dismay of the people to find the water of the well as red as blood. From that time the spot has been called "The Bloody Well," and the strangest sights and sounds are reported to have come from it. But later the remains of the man's body were removed from the depths of the well, after which the mysterious apparitions ceased and the well became an ordinary well again. To the west of the Macomb mansion is pointed out the Tippett House, solid and squarely built. After the Tippett family were named Tippett's Hill and Tippett's Brook, the outlet of the Van Cortlandt Lake. They were mostly Tories, and one of them was arrested in 1776 by General Clinton for "practices and declarations inimical to American liberty." The "ear-mark" of George Tippett's stock, roaming through the woods, is said to have been "the cutting off of their ears so close that all other marks would be cut off by it." A wildly magnificent primeval forest lines picturesque Riverdale Avenue as it winds its way northward from Kingsbridge. One of these immense trees, a gigantic white oak, said to be over three hundred years old, is called the "Cowboys' Oak." It must have been growing when Hendrick Hudson sailed up the Hudson and fought his battle with the Indians near Spuyten Duyvil Creek. Whenever the "Cowboys" were captured they were at once hurried to this place and strung from the huge branches of this oak. Over thirty "Cowboys" met death in this way during the war, and for long after the people of the district had a dread of passing the tree after nightfall. It used to be said that

when the moon was at the full the ghostlike forms of the dead "Cowboys" might be seen dangling from the mass of branches.

Immediately south of Mount St. Vincent is Riverdale, which is partially located on the old farm of George Hadley, bought from the Commissioners of Forfeiture in 1785. In 1843 about one hundred acres were acquired by William and Garret Ackerman. The Ackerman home stood a little east of the Riverdale railroad station and when the steamer "Henry Clay" was burned (1852) the Ackerman home was used as a temporary hospital. In 1853 a syndicate bought a large part of the Ackerman purchase and laid it out as a village. The construction of the Hudson River Railroad made the property accessible, and a number of beautiful residences and estates occupy the ground. It was from these heights that Generals Heath and Clinton witnessed the gallant attempts of the fireships to destroy the British war vessels in September, 1776. The highest point of land in the borough, two hundred and eighty-two feet, is in Riverdale. There are no stores in Riverdale and no village in the ordinary sense of the word. Mark Twain lived there in 1901; and among the landowners and residents have been many whose names have been noted in the political and mercantile history of New York City. South of Riverdale was the farm of William Hadley, extending from the Hudson River to the Albany Post Road. Hadley acquired it in two parcels; one from Colonel Jacobus, or James, Van Cortlandt, grandson of the first of the name, in 1761, and the other from the Commissioners of Forfeiture in 1786. The two parcels, comprising two hundred and fifty-seven acres, were bought from Hadley's executors in 1829 by Joseph Delafield, and the property remains with his descendants to this day. In 1853 Hudson Park was laid out by a land company in the northwest corner of the Betts and Tippett tract of 1668, on a farm formerly belonging to Samuel Thomson. It lies south of the Delafield property mentioned above.

South of Hudson Park lies the bold promontory between the Hudson River and Spuyten Duyvil Creek, which has been known under the several names of Shorrack-kappock, Tippett's Neck, Berrien's Neck, and Spuyten Duyvil Neck, the first being its Indian title and the last its present one. It was formerly known as the village and postoffice of Spuyten Duyvil, and that is the name of the station of the Central Railroad today. The more northerly portion comprised a tract of three hundred and fifty-six acres and was purchased by Frederick Van Cortlandt, brother of Colonel James, between 1768 and 1788 from several owners who had acquired the Betts and Tippett tract by purchase or inheritance. Upon the eastern side of the property, overlooking the Albany Post Road, Van Cortlandt erected a mansion which, during the Revolution, was known as "Upper Cortlandt's" to distinguish it from

the mansion in Van Cortlandt Park. The British maintained a post at Upper Cortlandt's from 1777 to 1779; it was this post that General Lincoln captured during the attack upon Fort Independence under Heath. The British afterwards reoccupied it, and from it went many expeditions to harry the occupants of the Neutral Ground. The old house was burned about 1822. Its site is occupied by a large stone house formerly belonging to Waldo Hutchins, at one time surrogate of the city of New York. The property passed by inheritance from Frederick Van Cortlandt to his brother Augustus, the city clerk of New York in 1776. By purchasing from his heirs in 1836 James R. Whiting became the owner and in 1840 he erected a large stone mansion overlooking the Hudson. The next year he disposed of parcels of the property, and the section became one of fine residences, some of which are nearly a century old.

In 1892 the remnant of the Whiting property came into the possession of the Sisters of Charity, who occupied the large and roomy mansion as a hospital for the care of consumptives in the first stages of the disease. Later, a fine hospital building was erected on Spuyten Duyvil Parkway, the whole institution being known as Seton Hospital. It furnishes free relief for those unable to pay, and has thirty rooms for pay patients; it can accommodate three hundred and forty. Several gorges lead from the steep hillside to the Hudson below, cut out of sandstone by the erosive action of the water. At the head of one of these gorges a small stream issues from under some overhanging rocks, which form a natural cave, known locally as "Indian cave," from the tradition that two of Nimham's band of Stockbridge Indians hid there from the pursuing troopers of Tarleton after their defeat by Simcoe near Woodlawn Heights.

The southern end of the neck was formerly the home tract of George Tippett and his descendants, the Berriens. The old Berrien homestead, though modernized, stands near the end of the neck, commanding a magnificent view of the Hudson and the northern end of Manhattan. About a quarter of a mile north of it is the Strang house, built originally by a Mr. Cameron within the ramparts of Fort Number One. Some distance east of Number One is a circular tumulus, the remains of Number Two, the "Fort Swartwout" of the Americans, and the Fort Independence of Sauhthier's map. A few yards east of it is the house known as the Warren Sage house, which occupies the site of Number Three, which commanded the King's Bridge, and from which there is a fine view across the valley to the site of the true Fort Independence of the Americans on Fordham ridge. The Indian village of Nipnichsen stood on the neck, and very extensive shell mounds still exist below the bluff, showing that this was a favorite place of resort of the natives.

In 1655, while Governor Stuyvesant was absent with the military forces of the colony on his expedition against the Swedish Fort Christina on the Delaware, a band of nine hundred savages crossed over from the Jersey shore and occupied the neck as a post of observation, while two thousand of their companions entered the city of New Amsterdam itself, causing great uneasiness to the inhabitants; they were, however, prevailed upon to withdraw to Nutten, later Governor's Island.

The old Tippett house stood on the eastern side of the neck in a grove of locust trees. During the Revolution, the Tippetts were loyalists and in consequence lost their property by confiscation. It was sold to Samuel Berrien, who had married Dorcas, a daughter of George Tippett; another daughter was the wife of the celebrated James De Lancey, sheriff of the county and leader of the Westchester Light Horse. Though the Berriens were good Whigs, their home, as well as that of Tippett, was a resort for the loyalists, owing to the protection offered by the forest above, whose officers could not have found duty upon the neck very irksome with several pleasant houses in the neighborhood to visit. In 1852 the old Berrien tract was composed of three farms. These were sold to three gentlemen of Troy, New York, who had the property surveyed and laid out as a village. It was at first called Fort Independence, under the impression that the fort had been located on the crest of the hill; but later, the name was changed to Spuyten Duyvil, after the creek. A foundry was established at the base of the bluff, which has expanded as the years have gone by into an extensive plant which has for a number of years supplied modern and improved projectiles for the guns of the United States Navy. There has thus grown up near the foundry a small village to accommodate the hands who work in the Johnson mill, and it is here that stores and postoffice are located. From the point upon which the mill stands, to the opposite shore of the creek on Manhattan, there stood in Revolutionary times a pontoon bridge connecting the posts and fortifications of the two sides of the creek. It was also upon the Cock Hill on Manhattan that there was to be found the spouting spring which is supposed to have given its name to the locality.

Upon the higher part of the neck the section is residential, and there are many beautiful houses and pieces of property. The ridge ends in a bold, rocky bluff, from which is obtained a beautiful view. At the feet of the observer is the winding creek entering the broad Hudson, which here, by contrast, appears as a lake; across the river towers the perpendicular frontage of the Palisades; while across the creek is the gently rising and heavily-wooded dome of Cox's Hill on Manhattan. To the southward and eastward, Marble Hill rises with its residences, and at its foot is the western entrance to the Ship Canal; while still

further away our view extends to the heights of Fordham with the great buildings of the Catholic Orphan Asylum and of the New York University outlined against the sky; still further away are those engineering triumphs, High Bridge and Washington Bridge. When moonlight spreads its glamour over the scene even the ugly railroad bridge at the mouth of the creek is beautiful. On the morning of October 22, 1609, the "Half-Moon" left her anchorage at Teller's Point near the mouth of the Croton River and made twenty-one miles to the southward during the day; but encountering head winds and tides she was obliged to anchor in the afternoon off the mouth of Spuyten Duyvil.

In 1909 occurred the three hundredth anniversary of Hudson's explorations, and the city celebrated with numerous civic and military displays. It occurred to Mr. Nuschenheim, proprietor of the Astor Hotel, who had fixed his home at Spuyten Duyvil, that a statue of Hudson on the point opposite the scene of the anchorage of the "Half-Moon" would be an appropriate memorial, and he succeeded in interesting four other gentlemen to go in with him as a committee, and lists for subscription were opened with such success that nearly $100,000 were pledged. The monument is in the form of a hollow shaft one hundred feet in height, the base surmounted by a sixteen-foot statue of the explorer. Walter Cook was the designer of the monument, and Karl Bitter the sculptor of the statue. The point of the neck upon which the monument stands is two hundred feet above the river, so that the gallery at the top of the shaft is three hundred feet high. A superb view is obtained at this point, access to which is obtained by a winding flight of stairs within the shaft.

In connection with the tercentenary of Hudson's discovery it was planned to have a memorial bridge span the waters of Spuyten Duyvil Creek, connecting Cock Hill with Spuyten Duyvil Neck, at a sufficient height to be clear of interference with navigation, and to connect the Boulevard Lafayette with Spuyten Duyvil Parkway. Though plans were in sufficient time to allow of the construction of the bridge by 1909, they did not meet with the approval of the Municipal Art Commission and other bodies. The road of travel east from the Spuyten Duyvil Station of the railroad meant formerly the crossing the New York Central tracks three times, once on a bridge over a deep cut in the solid rock, and twice within a few yards at grade, these last having been very dangerous crossings. It was near these crossings that there occurred on January 13, 1881, a dreadful railroad accident in which thirteen persons were killed, among them Senator Wagner, the inventor of the sleeping coach and parlor-car which bears his name. There were thirteen coaches on the wrecked train, and this combination of "thirteen" confirmed the credulous in their belief in the old superstition.

HOUSEBOAT COLONY AT 207TH STREET AND THE HARLEM RIVER

It was to get rid of this dangerous passage through Kingsbridge that the railroad changed its route to the Ship Canal in February, 1906. The Hudson, off the mouth of the creek, was the scene of an earlier accident on July 28, 1852, when the river boat "Henry Clay" was burned, and seventy persons, mostly women and children, lost their lives either by fire or drowning.

Riverdale Avenue is a fine road leading to the top of the hill to the ground just passed over, and another road is the ancient Dash's Lane, along the base of the hill on a level with Tippett's Brook, till it joins the ancient post road at Mosholu, west of Van Cortlandt Park. A third choice of route is by keeping east over Tippett's Brook and so through the village of Kingsbridge. From the mouth of the brook eastward to the ancient bridge, Spuyten Duyvil Creek has been filled in.

Kingsbridge is a straggling village and the road was formerly lined with boathouses, feed-stores, etc. On October 26, 1903, a disastrous fire destroyed many of these buildings. The fire was started presumably by the rockets set off during a political torchlight procession previous to the election of that year. Church Street passes north over the rocky core of the former island of Paparinemo and joins Broadway nearly a mile above. After passing the old bridge or near its site the traveler is on the Boston Road of 1673, though this has been graded from its former level. Nearby is the large stone mansion formerly occupied by Joseph Godwin. Previous to his occupancy of it it had been the home of Mrs. Mary C. P. Macomb, the wife of Robert Macomb, whose ventures were no more successful than those of his father. Mrs. Macomb acquired the Paparinemo tract about 1830. It is believed that there was incorporated within the mansion the ancient stone tavern which was maintained by both Verveelen and the Philipses in accordance with their grants. If so, that would make one of the oldest relics, as it would date from 1669. Mrs. Macomb enlarged and modernized the old tavern, which became noted for its hospitality as her private home. Edgar Allan Poe was a frequent visitor, as his home in Fordham was a little more than a mile away.

In 1847 Mrs. Macomb had her property surveyed and cut up into building lots; and the village of Kingsbridge had its beginning. Under the Broadway Bridge is the "wading place" of olden times. The bar in the middle of the stream was visible at low tide, and it was built up by Mr. Godwin, who erected a summer house upon it; it was known for many years in consequence as "Godwin's Island." Passing up Broadway the stroller comes to the flat meadowland through which Tippett's Brook finds its tortuous way. Overhead the elevated portion of the subway rattles on to its terminus at West 242d Street abreast of Van Cortlandt Park. On the right of the station are the Van Cort-

landt mansion and the lake. Just south of the mansion, a road connects the opposite sides of the valley; this is the old Albany Post Road. On the right as we go farther up Broadway is Van Cortlandt Park; and on the left are the hamlet of Mosholu and the heights of Riverdale, a rough broken country, full of short, knobby hills, separated by deep ravines and gullies. A part of the old Albany Road lies to the west of Broadway, a continuation of Dash's Lane. Upon the rocky heights to the west the remnant of the band of Stockbridge Indians found hiding places from their pursuers.

Instead of going up Broadway the stroller may cross to the eastern side of the valley by the ancient causeway (Macomb Street), over the construction of which Verveelen and Archer had a row; or he may cross to the station of the Putnam Railroad over Depot Street, and follow the Albany Road to the park, or the Boston Road to the top of the hill to Sedgwick Avenue and the new Jerome Park reservoir. The reservoir lies in the former townships of Kingsbridge and West Farms (Fordham), and occupies the site of the Jerome Park racetrack. Work upon the reservoir began in August, 1895, and the contract called for its completion in August, 1902. The reservoir was to consist of two basins capable of holding two billions of gallons and covering with water two hundred and twelve acres out of the three hundred and nine bought by the city, thus making it the largest distributing reservoir in the world. The western basin, holding 773,000,000 gallons, was finished in October, 1905. The millions of cubic yards of materials removed by excavation have been used in filling the valley of Cromwell's Creek and the meadows at Westchester, the refuse having been carried by rail across Bronx Park to the neighborhood of Westchester Creek and The Bronx and Pelham Bay Parkway. The reservoir is almost within a stone's throw of Fort Independence and Fort Number Five; so that when the excavations began the workmen turned up with their tools several cannon-balls, bayonets, swords, buttons, and other military relics, one man throwing out a shovelful of earth which gave up an English sovereign. All through this section from time to time similar relics have been unearthed, including several skeletons, one of which by means of the regimental buttons and shreds of uniform that remained, was identified as that of a British officer.

Three years before the breaking out of the Revolutionary War Captain Richard Montgomery purchased a farm of seventy-five acres lying north of the Boston Road. He had been an officer in the British army, but, despairing of advancement, resigned his commission and came to America, "where my pride and my poverty would be much more at their ease," as he himself declared, and where he could follow the pursuit of farming. In 1773 he married Janet Livingston, the daughter of

the lord of Livingston Manor and sister of the later celebrated Chancellor Livingston. The young Irishman threw in his lot with the patriots, and as a member of the Provincial Congress was selected with others to examine the Kingsbridge neighborhood with a view to its defensibility. Fort Independence was afterwards located on his farm by Colonel Rufus Putnam, the American engineer officer who first planned the defences of Fort Washington and its vicinity. Montgomery was appointed a brigadier-general by the Continental Congress, and a major-general after his capture of Montreal. Had all the appointments of former British officers been as wise as that of Montgomery we should not have had the record of the combined arrogance and inefficiency of Lee, Gates, Conway and others of like stamp. Montgomery had been with Wolfe in his memorable attack on Quebec, and it was probably on account of his knowledge of its approaches and defences that he was selected under Schuyler to command the American expedition against it. When he kissed his young wife good-bye at the home of General Schuyler near Saratoga, on his way to Ticonderoga, he said to her: "You shall never blush for your Montgomery." He led the forlorn remnant of his command at the assault on the citadel, and the large sign upon the precipice of Cape Diamond, below the fortress, "Here Montgomery fell, December 31, 1775," shows that he kept the pledge. The news of his gallantry and death called forth the praise of Burke, Fox, Barre, and others in the British Parliament, until Lord North was moved to exclaim: "Curse on his virtues; he has undone his country."

Among the papers found by Arnold in Montgomery's quarters at Quebec after his death was his will, by which he left the Kingsbridge farm to his sister Sarah, Viscountess Ranelagh. The Montgomery house on Fort Independence Street is known to the inhabitants of the vicinity, but there is doubt as to its genuineness. Edsall, the historian of Kingsbridge, states that the original house was burned and completely destroyed by the British during the Revolution, while W. O. Giles, who bought the property many years ago, and erected his own house within the ramparts of Fort Independence, declared that it was the original Montgomery house, and called attention to the fact that its beams are of hewn oak, in most cases, a sure sign of antiquity.

The old and the new Croton aqueducts pass through the former township and the Catskill aqueduct does likewise. In 1869 a portion of the Van Cortlandt estate, lying between Fort Independence and Van Cortlandt lake, was bought and laid out by the purchaser in building lots. The tract was called "Oloff Park," after Oloff Stevensen Van Cortlandt, the first of the name in the New World, and the ancestor of the Van Cortlandt families. Oloff Park, which contained about one hundred acres, has nearly all disappeared within the park and the reser-

voir. Nearly all the rest of the former township is taken up by the public park and by Woodlawn Cemetery. In the northeast corner is the village of Woodlawn Heights; and in the southeast corner there is a small strip lying along the Glen Hill Road, between the cemetery and the Fordham Manor line, upon which are situated the athletic field and track belonging to Columbia University. Just east of it, but within the cemetery, is the old redoubt thrown up by the orders of General Heath in 1776. Inwood, Cedar Knolls, and Mount St. Vincent are included in this section.

In West Farms—The manor of Fordham never constituted a township by itself, having first been incorporated in the township of Westchester by the act of 1788, and later, within the township of West Farms when it was formed in 1846. It lies moreover so close to Kingsbridge that it is difficult sometimes to differentiate in describing the two. On the Harlem River Fordham extends as far south as Highbridge, and on the Bronx it lies between West Farms and Williamsbridge. Within this area there grew up a number of villages, Fordham, South Fordham, Tremont, East Tremont, Belmont, South Belmont, Mount Hope, Mount Eden, Monterey, Fordham Heights, Jerome Park, and Williamsbridge. The Harlem Railroad traverses it to its northeast corner, and the Central Railroad passes along its western boundary, the Harlem River. Several trolley lines radiate from its different bridges. From Kingsbridge the stroller may gain the top of the Fordham ridge by means of the Boston Road, which passed through the manor for the greater part of its length to Williamsbridge, or he may take Bailey Avenue running parallel to the railroad tracks, and ascend to Sedgwick Avenue by means of the Highbridge Road or by means of Bailey Avenue itself to Fordham Cemetery. Under the edge of Tetard's Hill, probably on the line of Bailey Avenue, is the site of the ancient village of Fordham. Along the ridge the traveler crosses the Kingsbridge Road, leading to Westchester by way of the Bronxdale and the Bear Swamp. A short distance east of Sedgwick Avenue, and between it and Jerome Avenue, is the old Dutch Church of Fordham.

Fordham Cross Road comes down to the Harlem River through a break or valley; at the river is Fordham or Berrien's Landing, an old stopping place for boats plying on the river. The ridge south of Fordham Road has lately got the name of University Heights, owing to the presence of the New York University. Burnside Avenue winds its way down the steep hill towards the Harlem into Cedar Avenue, a continuation of Sedgwick Avenue on the lower level. Here is the Morris Heights station of the Central and Putnam railroads; and on the river bank a plant for the building of naphtha yachts and launches.

From this point southward to Washington Bridge the ridge was formerly occupied by a succession of fine residences and estates, many of which found their way into the hands of the real estate broker. There were no railroads in those days but access was had to this vicinity by private conveyance and by the boats that used to ply the Harlem River and connect at Harlem Bridge with the fast boats running to Peck Slip by way of the East River. The neighborhood of Highbridge is called Highbridgeville, though it extends along Devoe's Neck as far as Central Bridge. In the days of the river steamers Highbridge was a favorite resort, and hotels and restaurants did well. The view from the bridge on a moonlight night was a beautiful one—to see the river stretching away in both directions and glittering in the moonlight while the streets and avenues of northern Manhattan were marked out by the rows of glimmering gas lamps, reaching away for miles, to the upper end of Central Park and 110th Street, with few houses to break their continuity. Scattered through the manor were several public parks, St. James, Washington Bridge, Fordham, University, Poe, Echo, and the larger part of Bronx Park. South of the grounds of Fordham University was formerly situated the farm of the Rev. William Powell, rector of St. Peter's, Westchester, from 1830 to 1849. South of the Powell farm, upon land formerly belonging to Jacob Lorillard, is situated what was known before annexation as the village of Belmont; it took its name from that of the estate. To the east of Belmont were the Lorillard and Lydig estates, both of which were taken by the city for Bronx Park. The former contained the snuff mills of the Lorillards and the latter the dams and mill-ponds of the De Lancey mills, as well as the mills themselves.

In the northwest corner of Fordham Manor is the former village of Williamsbridge, though the name is more generally applied to the former village of Olinville on the east of The Bronx. There was a bridge here over the Bronx in early times, probably in 1670, when Governor Lovelace directed that Betts and Tippett should first assist in building the "causey" at Fordham before being assisted in their turn by Verveelen and Archer in building a bridge across the Bronx River. After the establishment of the post to Boston before 1660 the maintenance of the bridge over the stream became necessary. In pre-Revolutionary days, the farm adjacent to the bridge was owned by John Williams, and so the bridge became popularly known by his name. The present iron structure occupies approximately the same site as former bridges. Gun Hill is an eminence to the west of the river now occupied by a distributing reservoir.

Seventy years or so ago Mount Hope was all country fields and from Tremont to West Farms it was all farm land. To the north, near 178th

Street and Third Avenue, is Oakley Grove, one of the oldest landmarks of The Bronx. Miles Oakley, from whom the place derives its name, was a vestryman in St. Peter's Church, Westchester, in 1702, becoming in 1730 the second Mayor of Westchester. Following up Fordham Road, which is a continuation of Third Avenue, a short distance brings the traveler to the Old Quarry Road. It ascended Mount Hope Hill diagonally, taking a turn to the northwest, and lastly climbing the justly named "Snake Hill," reached Macomb's Road almost in front of Mount Fordham.

The original patent of West Farms comprised the territory between the Fordham line on the north, the Bronx River on the east, the Sound on the south, and Bungay Creek and Morrisania on the west. In 1846 it was made into a township, being formed from Westchester and including Morrisania and Fordham. Morrisania was taken from West Farms in 1856 and formed into a separate township. The intersection of Westchester Avenue and the Southern Boulevard was called Fox's Corners, and it is locally known as such. It received its name from William Fox, a wealthy Quaker merchant of New York, who married into the Leggett family and thus became possessed of the property, some of which continued to be owned by his descendants, the Tiffany family. South of the Corners, the Hunt's Point Road leads down to the East River. The point was a part of the West Farms patent of 1668, and received its name from Thomas Hunt, a son-in-law of Edward Jessup. The Indian name of the neck was Quinnahung; and it is also spoken of in the early deeds and grants as the "Great planting field, or neck." It lies between the Bronx River and the Sackwrahung Creek, which Lewis Morris says in a deed of 1740 to his father-in-law, James Graham, is falsely so-called but which should be called Wigwam Brook. But there was a strip of land here, called the "debateable land," in dispute between Morris and the heirs of the West Farms patentees, and that Morris would naturally not admit the slightest thing that would be of advantage to the other side. The more westerly portion of Planting Neck came into possession of Gabriel Leggett in 1679, through his wife Elizabeth, a daughter of John Richardson, one of the original patentees; this is the part known as Barretto's Point. Thomas Hunt and John Richardson both had houses on the point; for in a contract between them of August 12, 1669, for the division of the cornfield neck, the houses are mentioned. As late as 1906 the point retained its rural character, with several houses of a couple of generations earlier still standing. At the end of the point there are many hundred feet of docks. Nearby is the mouth of the Bronx River, with the low shores of Cornell's Neck on the opposite side, and beyond that over the East River, the high hills of Long Island; to the southward lie Leggett's Point,

Port Morris, the Brother Islands and Riker's Island. Near the old cemetery a road to the left takes us to Barretto's Point, which received its name from Francis Barretto, a merchant of New York, who settled there many years ago, and who represented Westchester County in the Assembly for several terms. The point was called Waddington's Point at the time of Mr. Barretto's purchase. The large stone mansion and the estate of Mr. Barretto were called "Blythe Place;" the mansion was burned down years ago, and the remains of the house have been removed until the top of the foundations is even with the ground. On the neck there is located the old burying-ground of the slaves belonging to the Hunt and Leggett families, and also an old oak upon which, according to tradition, the British used to hang the Whig foragers and spies who were so unfortunate as to fall into their hands. Lafayette Avenue leads toward the southwest to Morrisania, and commemorates the fact, so it is said, that General Lafayette passed over the lane on his way to Boston when he visited the United States in 1824. In a deed of May 3, 1804, mention is made of "Bocket's cot," or "landing place," on Barretto's Point, and it is also mentioned in later deeds. It is supposed the term "cot" used here means "cave."

Between Barretto's Point and Port Morris is Oak Point, until 1905 a pleasure resort for the residents of the borough who liked the kind of pleasure to be obtained there. It was formerly known as Leggett's Point, it being within the debateable land already referred to. The old tree-lined lane which used to lead to the point has disappeared, and its place has been taken by Leggett Avenue, an important thoroughfare for trucking purposes. In colonial days the point was called Jeaffard's Neck. The property between Bound and Wigwam brooks was granted by Judge Morris to his father-in-law, James Graham, Attorney-General of the province, on April 2, 1740; Mr. Graham died there in his house on Jeaffard's Neck in 1767. The Leggett family retained possession of the property, which was called Rose Bank, until near the middle of the last century, when it was bought by Benjamin Whitlock, a well-to-do grocer of New York, who was also interested in the cotton business. The old Leggett mansion was completely renovated, a prominent feature being the subterranean vaults and cellars for the storage of wine. It is said that the house was almost rebuilt of stone imported from Caen, France. In the days before the Civil War, the mansion was the scene of a lavish hospitality, and the generation of *bons vivants* were frequent guests at its generous board. With the Civil War and the downfall of slavery, cotton ceased to be king, and the place was closed by its impoverished owner and given over to nature. The dilapidated appearance of the house, and the tangled masses of weeds in the extensive grounds which had been planted with fine trees and plants

of all kinds and lavishly cared for, gained for it the name of "Whitlock's Folly." In 1890 the property went into the hands of an agent of the East Bay Land and Improvement Company and the same company acquired in that year three hundred and fourteen acres, including Hunt's and Barretto's points and other land in the vicinity. It is interesting to know that in a suit brought by the city of New York for the water rights of all this property, the company won its case upon the old Indian deeds and the ancient patents and grants of the early colonial days to the original white owners. The name of Casanova, former Cuban owners of the Whitlock house, is perpetuated in the nearby station of the suburban branch of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad.

The former village of West Farms is situated about three miles from the mouth of the Bronx River, to which point the tide rises and falls. It is believed that Jonas Bronk established mills there, and it is known that the patentees of the West Farms did have mills there, for they are mentioned in ancient documents. The site of the old mills is within the limits of Bronx Park, at the old Kingsbridge Road. About 1825 the property was bought by David Lydig for a summer residence and he occupied the De Lancey house on the east side of the stream. The mansion of the De Lanceys was on the east side of the Bronx, and therefore in Westchester; but their name is indissolubly connected with the settlement on the west side of the river. After the war one of the three stores in the section was located at West Farms and was conducted by Daniel Mapes. After the construction of Coles' Boston Road, the village became the most important place between New York and New Rochelle, as the road passes through the village. When the first extension of the surface-car service was made, it was to West Farms. The country roundabout was devoted to farming, but later many handsome estates were owned by well-to-do New York merchants. The change has been marked since the completion of the subway, which has an important station there; there are also numerous trolley lines going to all parts of the borough and to Mount Vernon and New Rochelle.

Somewhat to the west of the old village of West Farms and south of the present Tremont Avenue lay the historic "Hassock Meadow," mentioned in many of the early deeds. By the filling in of the new Crotona Parkway, which adjoins the Southern Boulevard towards the east, the greater part of the quaint meadow has disappeared. We find it also mentioned as one of the boundaries of the "West Farms" in the early deed of 1664, in which Edward Jessup and John Richardson, two of the borough's first landed proprietors, purchased from the Indians a large tract of land, afterwards called West Farms, and described in the records in the office of the Secretary of State at Albany as follows:

Westchester, March the 12, 1664.

These may certify whom it may concern that we, Shawnerockett, Wappamoe, Tuckore, Wawapecock, Cappakas, Quanuscoe, Shequiske, Passachem, and Harrawocke have aliened and sold unto Edward Jessup and John Richardson, both of the place aforesaid, a certain tract of land, bounded on the east by the River Aquehung, or Broncks to the midst of the river; on the northward by the trees markt and by a piece of Hassock Meadow; westward by a little brook called Sackwrahung, southward by the sea, with a neck of land called Quinnahung, with all the meadows, uplands, trees, and whatsoever else besides be upon ye said parcel of lands.... quietly to possess, enjoy the same from us our heires and successors . . . . and for their cattle to range in the Wood so Farre as they please.

We have set to our hands, the day and yeare above written.

Wappamoe,	Shawnerockett,
Wawapekock,	Tuckore,
Shaquiske,	Passachem,
Harrawocke,	Cappakkas.
Quanuscoe,	

Signed in presence of, Edward Waters, Richard Ponson, Nathan Bayly.

(Their marks were set, to.)

In Morrisania—The Gouverneur Morris house, to which many additions were made by the successor of the original builder, commanded a good view of the East River to the south, overlooking Bronx Kills and Randall's Island. Some weak efforts were made at one time to preserve the house as a museum and the grounds in which it was situated as a public park; but about 1905 the property was secured by the railroad and the historic mansion was demolished. Randall's Island is separated from the mainland by the strait called Bronx Kills, and from Ward's Island on the south by Little Hell Gate; the two islands were called in the Dutch days Little Barent's Island and Great Barent's Island, respectively, corrupted after the advent of the English into Little and Great Barn islands. They were both farmed by Governor Van Twiller, and the government had considerable difficulty in getting them back from him. Formerly there was a ford, or wading place, between Vercher's or Hogg Island, as it was also called, and the "Maine;" and it is mentioned in the grant of Colonel Nicolls to John Verveelen, the Harlem ferryman, in 1666. In Revolutionary days, the pickets of the two armies used to fire upon each other across the strait; while the manor-house of Lewis Morris was at first occupied by an American outpost, and later, by a British one.

Randall's Island is without the borough, lying at the mouth of the Harlem River. Elias Pipon bought the island in 1732, erected a house, and named his purchase Belle Isle; after fifteen years, it became Talbot's Island, after a new purchaser; and in 1722 Montressor's Island,

after Captain John Montressor, who bought it in that year. He was the owner at the beginning of the Revolution. It was bought by Samuel Ogden in the spring of 1784; he sold it in the fall of the same year to Jonathan Randall for the sum of £24. In 1835 the city bought the island from Randall's executors for $50,000. There are about one hundred acres on the island, which is occupied by numerous buildings devoted to the physical, mental, and moral needs of children.

Lewis Morris, the Signer, and last manor-lord of Morrisania, died in 1798. His estate was divided up among his descendants, some of whom also acquired property in the old manor of Fordham. The land once forming the manor of Morrisania was divided and subdivided until the names of the owners constituted a legion. The development of Morrisania, at the close of the Revolution, the most sparsely settled portion of the county of Westchester, but later the most populous section of the borough, was due primarily to the building of the Harlem Railroad in 1842. As early as 1816, the year in which he died, Gouverneur Morris caused his property to be surveyed and laid out in farm lots by John Randall, surveyor and engineer, and the map recorded. This property also included a portion of "Old Morrisania," west of the Mill Brook, which had been obtained from General Staats Long Morris, the inheritor from his father, after the cessation of the stepmother's life interest.

The village of Mott Haven came about in this way. In 1828, Jordan L. Mott, the inventor of the coal-burning stove, opened a modest little factory on the plot of ground bounded by Third Avenue, 134th Street, and the Harlem River. The foundry grew to be one of large size; but by June, 1906, the plant was too cramped in its Bronx quarters and so was removed to Trenton, New Jersey. Being impressed with the future possibilities of the section, Mott, with several others, bought from Gouverneur Morris two hundred acres of land at $175 an acre—these were sections sixteen to twenty-three on the Randall map of 1816. There is a story to the effect that the price was determined as follows: Mott, who was a tax assessor, placed so high a valuation on the property as to call forth remonstrances from Morris, who exclaimed that he would be glad to get a purchaser at the assessed value; whereupon Mott replied: "I'll take it"; and so the sale was effected. "The second Gouverneur Morris," writes Jenkins, "inherited the bluntness and disregard of public opinion of his distinguished father. Upon being asked by an employee of Jordan L. Mott if he had any objection to the newly-purchased section being called Mott Haven, he replied: 'I don't care what he calls it; while he is about it, he might as well change the name of the Harlem and call it the Jordan.' "

The Mott Haven Canal lies between Third and Park avenues and it

allows canal-boats to pass from the Harlem River as far as 138th Street. The lower part of the canal was laid out by Jordan L. Mott about 1850. It followed the course of a small stream which drained the ground on either side as far as 144th Street, then called Main Street on the map of Mott Haven, the water of which passed through a sluiceway at Van Stoll Street, the former name of 138th Street, which was a solid street across the brook. By deed of November 1, 1864, Mott conveyed the property contiguous to the stream to a man named Bryant, who, in 1868, began the extension of the canal to Main Street, having an understanding with the Morrisania town authorities that there was to be a bridge over Van Stoll Street. In 1869 the property passed into the hands of Rider and Conkling, the owners of about six hundred lots in Mott Haven, who proposed to complete the canal to Main Street; but they at once met with opposition from the residents and landowners of the vicinity, on the ground of the liability of the canal's becoming a source of malaria and a nuisance. To meet these objections, Rider and Conkling made proposals to the village of Morrisania, and were permitted to construct the canal under an agreement by which they were to maintain a turn-table bridge at Van Stoll Street, to dredge out the canal and bulkhead it, to build and keep in repair other bridges crossing the canal, and to fill in the canal at their own expense on the town's order, should it become a public nuisance. They further agreed to permit the town to empty its sewage into the canal; and the town and its successor, the city of New York, so disposed of the sewage until the construction of the Rider Avenue sewer gave them another outlet to the river.

The owners failed to bulkhead the canal as agreed and the mud banks frequently caved in. Locks were constructed, which prevented the rise and fall of the tide; so that the canal became an actual cesspool. The canal was declared a public nuisance; and streets were laid out to take the place of the canal; and upon the opening and grading of 138th Street the Legislature of 1896 authorized the construction of a bridge on that street over the canal. The work of filling in the canal from 144th Street down was begun in 1901. The canal was thus made to extend six hundred and fifty feet from the Harlem River to 135th Street, where there is a lifting steel bridge, and six hundred feet further to 138th Street.

The construction of the Coles bridge over the Harlem at Third Avenue led to the settlement of a small village, or hamlet, at its northern end, lying east of Third Avenue in the borough. This was commonly known as Morrisania for many years, though later taking the name of North New York. By 1855 there were quite a number of small villages scattered about the old manor, then within the township of West Farms,

due to the fact that Gouverneur Morris, the second, and the other proprietors had begun to sell their lands to the overflow from New York and European lands; but primarily to the construction of the Harlem railroad. On December 7, 1855, the township of Morrisania was re-formed, following practically the old manor lines. In 1864 the village of Morrisania was incorporated. The township embraced the villages of Mott Haven, North New York, Port Morris, Wilton, East Morrisania, Old or Central Morrisania, West Morrisania, Melrose, South Melrose, East Melrose, Woodstock, Claremont, Eltona, and Devoe's Neck. Several of these were named after the adjoining estates; thus, Claremont was the estate of Martin Zboroski. "As we wander through Morrisania today," wrote Stephen Jenkins about a decade and a half ago, "we find the same network of solidly built-up streets and blocks that we would find in Manhattan, except on the eastern and western edges, where we still find rural conditions. Yet so convinced are some people that the Borough is still rural that they talk of living in the country, even when it happens to be Wendover Avenue, where there are more adults and more children—children especially—to the square inch than in almost any other place in the city."

In the northwest corner of the township there used to be a small stream south of Highbridge which was the dividing line between the Turneur patent and the lands of Archer and Morris. It ran from about the junction of Ogden Avenue and Woolf Street into the Harlem. This latter street gets its name from the Woolf family, whose farm was situated along the southern line of the manor of Fordham. The ancestor of the family was a Hessian soldier named Anthony Woolf, who found this country so much to his liking that he remained after the Revolution, and acquired title to his farm by his industry and frugality. The stream has long since disappeared within a sewer. In the river near where the stream emptied was Crab, or "Crabbe," island of the old deeds and patents. Turneur's land lay between the Harlem and Cromwell's Creek, and was called Nuasin by the Indians, though better known as Devoe's Point, or Neck. Below 161st Street and close to Jerome Avenue is the bulkheaded tidal basin of Cromwell's Creek. A short distance above 165th Street is the old Cromwell house, a dilapidated structure built of stone and rapidly going to decay. Most of the families of the Cromwells had ancestral connection with Colonel John Cromwell, a brother of the Lord Protector Oliver. James Cromwell, born in 1752, worked for Lewis Morris at Morrisania, probably about 1770, and as General Morris had established a mill on Cromwell's Creek, or Mentipathe, as the Indians called it, in 1760, it is fair to presume that the house was built for the miller about the earlier date. However that may be the creek received its name from James Cromwell and has retained it ever since.

The house was not far away from the probable road, or lane, connecting Fordham with the Morrisania manor-house.

The central part of the town was occupied by a number of mansions and estates, few of which remain. The Morrisania town hall was located at Third Avenue and 160th Street. Here was transacted the business of the four wards into which the town was divided. The old town hall was used as a police station for a long time after annexation until replaced by the present structure. "Lucy Randall Comfort, a well-known writer of children's stories a generation or more ago, lived on Franklin Avenue, one of the oldest streets in Morrisania," writes Jenkins. "Henry B. Dawson, the historian, formerly lived in the eastern part of the town; he has the posthumous honor of having a street named after him. Dawson was a wonderful man at research; and his statements, based upon authorities, which he nearly always gave, were very frequently opposed to the traditional ideas of matter and things; and, in consequence, he was often engaged in controversial correspondence with others, in which he seldom came out second best. His accuracy was recognized and appreciated, and so most of his statements are accepted without further confirmation. He was the author of many historical works; and, after the death of Mr. Valentine, he contributed the historical matter for the 'Manual of the Common Council.' George H. Bristow and Francis H. Nash, both musicians and composers, were also residents of Morrisania. Among the very earliest recollections I have are the Sunday visits of the former to Mount Vernon, to visit his friends, the Aylyffe brothers, both of whom were musicians, and one of whom, James, was the ringer of Trinity's chimes for a great many years."

Crotona Park containing the Borough Hall for the offices of the borough government, lies near the upper end of the township; the park was taken from both Morrisania and West Farms. Just beyond in Tremont the unfortunate Charlotte Temple is said to have lived. It was the original intention of the "New" Parks Commission of 1883-84 to have named the park Bathgate Park after the family from whom the property was obtained. It seems that the Bathgates had some dispute with the Commission's engineer, and he determined not to perpetuate the name of the family in the new park. Instead he manufactured the name "Crotona" from "Croton."

Port Morris was practically an island at high tide in the olden days. Gouverneur Morris built a causeway across the meadows, about the line of 138th Street, so that people and horses could pass over dryshod. This was in the fifties of the last century; and it is said he did this principally to give employment to some of the poor people of the neighborhood, so that it was a case of practical charity. During the Revolution the

British frigate "Hussar" went down off Port Morris, then called Stony Island. She was loaded with American prisoners and treasure, the latter, so tradition says, consisting of the pay of the British army in New York. Many companies have been formed to get the sunken treasure, but more money has been sunk in these enterprises than has been, or ever will be, recovered. Divers have brought to the surface bits of the old hull, which are easily secured, as the ironwork has all rusted away, a few coins, and various interesting relics in the way of chain-shot, bullets, pieces of copper, and the like. But the treasure, if there be any, has so far escaped them. Lincoln Hospital lies near the Southern Boulevard at 141st Street. Wilton was a small village to the west of this section, and was in the sixties, a favorite place of residence for actors, of whom there was quite a settlement.

In Westchester—In the year 1785 the State Legislature decreed that "the district formerly called and known by the style of the Borough and Town of Westchester, shall henceforth be known by the name of the Town of Westchester." This, of course, deprived the town of its mayor and aldermen and of its right to have a representative in the Assembly; but the township was authorized to elect by the votes of the inhabitants six freeholders to act as trustees of the township. By Act of the Legislature of 1813, the trustees, or a majority of them, were empowered to sell the undivided lands of the township and to continue to lease the ferry to Flushing, Long Island. In the town, St. Peter's and its graveyard are of interest, and the visitor may spend some time in deciphering the older tombstones to be found there. The Sunday school building occupies the site of the old court-house and jail. The records of the judicial proceedings have been kept since the Dutch days, though not now in the old town. In the records from 1657 to 1662, we may find a number of names which are mentioned in The Bronx and Westchester history: John Archer, a born litigant, later of Fordham; William Betts, purchaser with Tippett of a part of Colen Donck; and Edward Jessup, of the West Farms patent. At the time of annexation, when the part of the borough east of the Bronx River became a part of New York County, the town records were removed to the city and are now in the Record Department, Register's office of the Comptroller's office. The deeds, wills, and other official and legal papers are still kept at White Plains.

At a town meeting, June 8, 1700, it was resolved:

> That whereas at a former meeting.... on the third day of May, 1697, it was voted and agreed upon that there should be a town hall, built to hold courts in and for the publick worship of God, but it being then neglected, the mayor, aldermen, and justices at this meeting did order with a joynt consent to build a house for the uses of a *court* and *prison*. The dimensions of the house are to

be twenty-six feet square, sixteen feet joynts, a square roof, six window cases five feet square, etc. The trustees agreed with Richard Ward to build said house for £33, and with Erasmus Orton to build the prison for £5. It is to be twenty feet long, 16 feet wide, seven feet high, two feet thick with a good chimney.... Which work is to be done by the 31st.

By the act of November 1, 1683, which divided the Province into counties, the borough-town was designated as the county-seat; and later the Court of Oyer and Terminer and General Jail Delivery was held in the courthouse, erected under the resolution given above. From the "New York Post Boy," of 1758, we get the following item: "New York, February 13th. We hear from Westchester that on Saturday night the 4th inst. the Courthouse at that place was unfortunately burned to the ground. We have not yet heard how it happened." The building was repaired, and courts were held here until November 6, 1759, when the county-seat and court were removed to White Plains. The restored courthouse was again burned early in the Revolution.

The old causeway, first mentioned in the town records of July 9, 1678, still connects Throgg's Neck with the mainland. On the south side of the Westchester end of the causeway there formerly stood an old tide mill, which had been erected at a very early period by Colonel Caleb Heathcote. Behind its walls, the outpost, consisting of Hand's Riflemen, took refuge and prevented the crossing of the creek by the British on October 12, 1776. The old mill was operated until February, 1875, when it took fire from an overheated stove and was completely destroyed. Some of the Westchester inhabitants were engaged in the sloop trade with New York in the first half of the nineteenth century, and the owners of the trade found it very lucrative. Later, small steamers plied between the two places. Among the sloop owners was Sydney B. Bowne, a respected Quaker of the town, who, after the restoration of peace, conducted a store in the village, which was easily the most famous of the three or four stores of which the borough was possessed. It was said that "Syd" Bowne always had what was asked for, and that he never turned a customer away empty-handed. Once, on a wager, some gentleman asked for a goose-yoke, a rather rare article, but it was furnished on the instant. On a similar occasion of a wager, the article demanded was a pulpit. The venerable merchant thought for a few moments, and then recalling the contents of his garret, called to his son: "Thomas, thee will find Parson Wilkins's old pulpit behind the chimney in the garret." It appears that when St. Peter's had been renovated, Friend Bowne had bought the old pulpit.

The suburban station for Westchester is Van Nest, which gets its name from an estate formerly lying east of West Farms. The Morris Park race-track was reached by means of the same station; and on racing days, the usual population of the section used to be increased

by the thousands of visitors who came from all quarters. A large part of the De Lancey estate, later belonging to the Lydigs, is within the bounds of Bronx Park; and this is true also of the Lorillard estates. There are several necks in the township of Westchester, which jut out into the waters of the East River or of the Sound. The most westerly one is that originally called Cornell's Neck, which, since the summer of 1909, can be reached by the trolley line running down Clason Point Avenue from Westchester Avenue, a distance of about two miles. This road has been built by the city within a couple of decades and it goes straightaway to the end of the neck, replacing the former winding roadway, which was bordered in many places by trees, many of which were magnificent in size; and among which could have been found black walnuts and other trees which are not natives of this latitude but which were planted by former owners of the neck. The neck was first occupied by Thomas Cornell, one of Throckmorton's colonists, in 1643; but he was driven away by the Indians and his house burned, because they said he had not paid them for the land. However that may be, he must have given satisfactory proof to the Dutch authorities that he had purchased the land, for a "grond brief" was issued to him in 1646 by Governor Kieft. To his grandson, William Willett, the land was confirmed by patent of Colonel Nicolls, April 15, 1667. In this deed, the land is described as "a certain Parcell of Land, contained within a neck, commonly called and knowne by ye name of Cornell's Neck, lying and being upon the Maine, toward the Sound or East River, being bounded to the West by a certain Rivolett which runs to the Black Rock and so into Bronckse Creeke or Kill. Then the Neck stretching itselfe East South East into the Sound is bounded to the East with another Rivolett which divides it from the limits of West Chester and a line being run from the head of each Rivolett wherewith a narrow slip, the said Neck is joined to the Maine land, it closes up the Neck and makes the North bounds thereof."

The "Rivolett, which runs to the Black Rock," is at present known as Barrett's Creek, and where it joins the Bronx River is a bluff of black gneiss at the southeastern part of the neck. From the presence of this rock, the patent and neck, or farm, were known as the "Black Rock" patent and farm. The "Rivolett, which divides it from the limits of West Chester," is Wilkins Creek, also known as Pugsley's Creek, from the former owner of the farm lying adjacent to the neck on Westchester Avenue; nearby the avenue used to cross the wet meadows of Barrett's Creek on a causeway, also called "Pugsley's." Just beyond were the golf links of the Westchester Golf Club until 1906. The line joining the heads of the two creeks is a few yards south of Westchester Avenue, the road to the neck formerly passing between them being a

narrow causeway. Near the mainland on each side of the neck are salt marshes dotted with rocky hummocks which rise from ten to twenty feet above the surrounding meadows; one of them to the east is called "Indian Rock." These meadows have now been largely filled in and the property around has been graded and improved and largely built upon. The old road used to pass from one little hummock to another to the main part of the neck, which is nearly all less than twenty feet above water, though rising in two places to forty feet. At the end of the neck are a number of summer hotels, bathing pavilions, moving picture places, and other amusement places of like character, making of the neck a sort of Coney Island on a small scale. The spot became very popular following the closing of the Oak Point resort and the running of the trolley, as one can get from almost any part of the borough for a five-cent fare.

One of the hotels, the Clason Point's Inn, is partly of stone, the older portion being the kitchen of the original Cornell house, and another part attached to it being the remains of the Willett and Clason mansion. A short distance from the inn is a small stone structure which was formerly the smoke-house of the ancient farmstead. When Clinton Stephens took possession he found the place in ruins and was tempted to pull them down completely; but the historic associations finally prevailed, and he incorporated the remains of the old buildings within the new, though it was a difficult job. Above the entrance he also placed a legend of the original occupancy of the neck by Cornell and a brief statement of its subsequent history. The neck remained in possession of the Willetts until 1793, when the west half of it was conveyed to Dominick Lynch, an Irish gentleman of considerable means who appears to have been wealthy even before he came to this country. About the same time the eastern portion of the neck was sold to Isaac Clason. This part of the neck includes the point, which, from its new owner of 1793, took the name of Clason's Point, which it still retains. A ferry to connect it with Long Island was established in the spring of 1912.

Dominick Lynch built a large and handsome stone mansion on a high point of his land which gives a fine view of the neck and river. In the large entrance hall is a fireplace and mantel of Carrara marble, beautifully carved, with supporting caryatids, which does not show a scratch or blemish on the white grained stone after the usage of more than a century. Mr. Lynch was a devout Catholic; and it is stated that the first services of the Church ever celebrated in Westchester County were held in this mansion. In 1830, his executors sold the west half of the neck to the Ludlow family; later it came into the possession of the Schieffelins, who disposed of it in 1870 to the Christian Brothers, a celebrated Irish teaching confraternity, who used it until 1883 as a training school for the neophytes of the society. In this latter year it

was changed into the Sacred Heart Academy for the education of boys, and it became known as the Clason's Point Military Academy. Several buildings, including a chapel, have been added, and there is an athletic field, while the water contiguous to the property allows of aquatic sports and pastimes. The rest of the neck, where not built upon, is under cultivation, and attention was attracted from the beginning by the number of broken shells which were turned up by the plough. Other owners of property on the neck were the Ludlow family, the first of whom came to this country in 1694. Ludlow Street, Manhattan, was named after a member of this family. The name of the first Ludlow was Gabriel, which became a family name, which constantly occurs in the family genealogy. One of the name was a colonel in De Lancey's brigade of loyalists during the Revolution; his half-sister was the wife of Francis Lewis, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; which shows how members of the same family differed in their political views during Revolutionary times. It was a good thing indeed for some of the Tories that this was so; for unquestionably many a handsome estate was saved from confiscation through the prominence of some patriotic member of a family who was in the line of inheritance.

Westchester Avenue, east of the Southern Boulevard, is being gradually built upon, and a large tract of land is being developed beyond the Bronx River. The thoroughfare was until 1904 little different from a country road, lined by magnificent trees, which have disappeared since the widening and grading of the street in the year mentioned. At the same time a turn-table bridge was erected over the Bronx River and the tracks of the Suburban branch of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad. Before this the crossing had been made at grade and it was a dangerous place.

To the eastward of Cornell's Neck is Castle Hill Neck upon which Unionport is situated. To reach the end of the neck, one goes out Avenue C, past the public school building. Unionport occupies the head of the neck lying between Westchester and Pugsley creeks. In the town records of Westchester we find under date of May 6, 1729, regulations for the government of the "sheep pasture," which had been granted to the town by the charter of February 28, 1721. The freeholders of the town were entitled to free pasturage for twenty-five sheep for each individual; "a cow in lieu of five sheep, a horse, mare, or an ox; in lieu of a sheep, a calf; in lieu of two sheep, a yearling"—all of which is reminiscent of the problems we used to solve in our childhood's days. The "sheep pasture," or "Commons," as it was later called, embraced about four hundred acres on the west side of Westchester Creek, together with a fenced-in piece of an acre and a half on Stony Brook, where the owners were in the habit of folding and washing their

sheep. In 1825 the trustees of the town sold the Commons, as undivided lands belonging to the town, to Martin Wilkins. They then passed through several hands, including those of his grandson, Gouverneur Morris Wilkins, who paid $300,000 for them. He sold them in 1851 to a building association, that established here the village of Unionport; which, in the earlier days of the electric cars, was a favorite resort on Sundays and holidays. The Industrial Home Association Number Two filed its map of Unionport at White Plains on August 23, 1854. Included in this plot was the Lowerre farm, which Wilkins had bought for $25,000. He resold it in September, 1851, at a contract price of $200 an acre, to Henry Palmer, trustee of the building association. This will give an idea of the value of land in the vicinity as long ago as the middle of the last century.

"Passing out of Avenue C, we go through a stone gateway and over a shady country road and reach the neck itself," wrote Stephen Jenkins a decade and a half ago. "The surrounding fields are well-cultivated, the old estates being in possession of German market gardeners. We get fine views from the top of the ridge along which we pass to the outer end of the neck. The road ends at the fence about an estate which gives evidences of having once been a gentleman's country-place. It formerly belonged to the late Gouverneur Morris Wilkins, and later to his son-in-law, John Screven, from whom the neck is known locally as 'Screven's Point.' The mansion stands on a bluff near the end of the neck overlooking a stretch of meadow. The view is a fine one, with the mouth of Westchester Creek and Old Ferry Point to the eastward and the East River to the south with the hills of Long Island beyond. If when we come to the end of the Castle Hill Road we turn to the right, we can follow a lane which passes close to the fence and which brings us into the farmyard of the ancient home of the Reverend Isaac Wilkins, built, supposedly, about 1765. It is likely that the house is even older than this as it may have been erected by the Underhills, or even by the Cromwells, previous owners of the neck; and the curious hiding place which the house contains may have been constructed for protection from the Indians; or, more likely, as a place for the storage of smuggled goods. The lonely position of the house and the convenience to the creek at its very door lend likelihood to the latter supposition, as we know that merchants in colonial days were extensively engaged with, or at least interested in, the contraband trade."

The earliest record we have of the place is of the date of 1685, when "John Cromwell and Elizabeth Cromwell, his wife, exchanged six acres of meadow with Thomas Hunt, for eight acres of upland, situated upon Castle Neck." In consequence of his occupancy of the neck, it was known for some time as "Cromwell's Neck." From the Cromwells

the property passed to a younger branch of the Underhills, descendants of the redoubtable Captain John Underhill, whose surprise and massacre of the Indians at Mianus broke up the Indian war of Kieft's administration. Isaac Wilkins was the next owner, and he disposed of it in 1784 to Gilbert Pell for £2,500; after which it passed through several hands until it came into those of Martin Wilkins, a descendant of the Rev. Isaac Wilkins. Why the property escaped confiscation to the State under the laws of 1779, sequestrating the property of loyalists, is a question. Political and family influences, especially the latter, were more potent in those days than these; and it has to be remembered that Wilkins's wife was a half-sister of Lewis, and a full sister of Gouverneur Morris, two famous Whigs.

The name of Throgg's Neck is given to that portion of the former town of Westchester lying between Westchester Creek, the East River, the Sound, and Eastchester Bay. As early as 1704, the northern portion, now within Pelham Bay Park, was called "Dorman's Island." Its earliest settlement was made by Throgmorton, Cornell, and their companions, after the Indian war of Kieft's administration. Such part of the land as had not been occupied by the colonists came into possession of Augustine Hermans. It is probable that these colonists, who escaped the Indian massacre, returned to the neck after that unhappy affair and once more occupied and cultivated their lands. Two of these were named Spicer and Brockett, who gave their names to two necks on the south side of the peninsula. On the southwest side of Spicer's Neck, the Siwanoy Indians had one of their most important places of sepulture, and hence the neck was frequently called "Burial Point." On January 7, 1667, Colonel Nicolls granted to Roger Townsend "a certain parcel of land... at ye southeast end of Throgmorton's neck, commonly called New Found Passage, containing fifteen acres, as also a small neck thereto adjoining commonly called Horseneck, being about the same quantity of land, which is not in occupation." In January, 1686, Spicer's and Brockett's necks were patented to Thomas Hunt of Westchester by Governor Dongan under the title of Grove Farm. The yearly quit-rent was a bushel of good winter wheat, to be paid "on or before the five and twentieth day of March, at the city of New York." That Hunt received a previous confirmation is evident from his will of 1694, in which he bequeathed "to my grandson Josiah Hunt, eldest son of my son Josiah Hunt, the Grove Farm, to him and to his heirs male, which was patented to me by Governor Nicolls 4th December, 1667, and further entails the same to the said Josiah and his heirs male lawfully begotten from generation to generation." This was the same Thomas Hunt, who married a daughter of Edward Jessup, one of the patentees of the West Farms, and thus came into the possession of Planting Neck, after-

wards called Hunt's Point. The Grove Farm was sold at public vendue on May 6, 1760, to Josiah Cousten for £3,400; so that it has to be concluded either that the male line of the Hunts had run out, or that the entail had been broken. Cousten sold the same property in October, 1775, to John Ferris, a descendant of John Ferris, one of the original patentees of Westchester, who had married Myanna Hunt. In consequence of this purchase, Spicer's Neck became known as Ferris's Point. From Brockett's Neck, just beyond, the ferry connected with Whitestone, Long Island, and the neck thus became known as Old Ferry Point.

As the stroller crosses over the causeway from Westchester, he is confronted by the Presbyterian Church on a spot on the opposite hill, upon which the British erected a semi-circular breastwork in October, 1776, as a protection from the American riflemen and artillery at the Westchester end of the causeway, during the five days that Sir William Howe held the neck before his advance toward New Rochelle. The road leads straightway to the end of the neck, where Fort Schuyler is situated. A number of estates have been developed under the name of Throgg's Neck Gardens. On the north side of the road, beyond the Eastern Boulevard, are the grounds of the Westchester Polo Club. The Eastern Boulevard extends from Pelham Bridge to Unionport and crosses Castle Hill Neck and Clason Point and ends at Port Morris. On the north side of Throgg's Neck are Locust Point, and Weir Creek, as well as a small settlement called Pennyfield. Turning to the north over the Eastern Boulevard the traveler passes the grounds of the Westchester Country Club and, continuing on his way, comes to Pelham Bridge. The old road connecting Westchester causeway with Pelham Bridge passes one of the famous trees of the borough. This is the "Spy," or "Haunted" Oak. Its age is considered to run into centuries; as three feet above the ground its girth is twenty feet, and at the ground the spreading roots must increase this measurement by at least ten more. It gets its name from the tradition that a British spy, caught prowling near the American line, was hanged from one of its branches.

Lying northward of Throgg's Neck, and between it and City Island, are several small rocky islands whose tops are bare at low tide, and upon one of which the Federal Government maintains a lighthouse. These islets are called the "Stepping-stones"; and the origin of the name is due to an Indian legend in which the devil figures prominently. At the end of Throgg's Neck is Fort Schuyler, which, with Fort Totten on Willett's Point, Long Island, commands the eastern entrance to the East River, which is here very narrow. To the eastward of the two points is the Sound. Fort Schuyler was named in honor of General Philip Schuyler, who commanded the Northern Army in 1777, and whose

conduct of the campaign made possible the defeat and capture of Burgoyne by the succeeding American commander, Horatio Gates. On the south side of Throgg's Neck, west of Fort Schuyler, are estates which are superb in situation and in the care lavished upon them. Upon the Huntington estate is the finest cedar of Lebanon to be found in the United States.

On the west side of Westchester Creek, the principal roadway, leading from the borough-town through the middle of the township is the Eastchester Road, which is mentioned in Nicoll's grant of the Ten Farms as the "Westchester path." Before the days of the Oostdorp settlers it was a trail, or path, used by the Siwanoys. It passes along the meadows of the creek to the higher ground along their edge and crosses Boston Road at Corsa Lane, Williamsbridge. From this point, the Coles Road followed the Eastchester Road. It crosses the Bronx and Pelham Parkway; and it was not far from this point that the Americans had an outpost to prevent the enemy from crossing at the head of the creek in October, 1776. Beyond the Eastchester Road is the Williamsbridge Road, passing to the north of what was the Morris Park race-track; on the south of the track is the Bear Swamp Road leading to Bronxdale.

Bronxdale was like West Farms, though smaller; since, having been a milling village strung along the Boston Road in the early part of the last century, the substantial stone cottages and houses stood until 1911, when they were removed out of Bronx, being either demolished or taken to other sites. Robert Bolton established a bleachery near where the Boston Road crosses the Bronx River about 1820, and for many years a successful business was conducted there. The little village was about a mile above West Farms, but the community of interests made them virtually one settlement. Bronxdale is connected with Williamsbridge by the White Plains Road; but this section is still sparsely settled and developed. In the northeast portion of the old township is Williamsbridge, which gets its name from a farmer of pre-Revolutionary days whose farm was on the east side of the Bronx River near the bridge. John Williams' house, about one hundred and fifty years old, was still standing in 1903, on First Street, a little east of the White Plains Road, within the new park that has resulted from the widening of the street. The Bronx River presents some beautiful views just below the bridge. Many of the occupants of the houses are French and their grounds and houses are ornamented with statues and flowers. The French settlement has been in existence over thirty years and to it is due the factory for the manufacture of Gobelins tapestries. There are also several French restaurants where one can dine *al fresco*.

The former village of Williamsbridge, which was incorporated and elected its own officers, December 27, 1888, comprised the villages of Olinville Number One, Olinville Number Two, Jerome, and Wakefield. The first two were named after Bishop Olin of the Methodist Church, the map of Number One having been filed at the county-seat at White Plains on December 18, 1852, and that of Number Two, on April 11, 1854. The first lay north of the bridge along the Bronx River, and the latter, south of the bridge as far as the Lorillard estate, now within Bronx Park; the White Plains Road was the eastern boundary of both. Jerome was a smaller section north of the bridge and east of White Plains Road; and Wakefield, laid out in 1853, was east and north of Jerome. Laconia Park is a speculative holding laid out about 1888, lying between Wakefield and the Boston (Coles) Road. The northern boundary of Williamsbridge and the town of Westchester is on the line of 229th Street; east of that is the Black Dog Brook, extending to the Hutchinson River.

In Eastchester—Only a small part of the township of Eastchester was added to the Borough of The Bronx. The name of Washingtonville was that originally applied to the station on the Harlem Railroad where the New Haven Railroad leaves the Harlem tracks and swings to the eastward; but a few years ago the name was changed to Wakefield, which has thus become the upper end of the city. A small settlement close to Wakefield was called Jacksonville. A section on the east of the Bronx River abreast of Woodlawn Cemetery awaits development, though the park reservation along the river has taken a good deal of the land. Right on the boundary line of the city, on the White Plains Road, is situated what is left of the old Penfield estate. The large comfortable-looking old mansion was an object of interest to all the passengers to the terminal of the Union Railway Company at 242d Street; and the mansion possessed an air of dignity that went with its age. The house was almost entirely destroyed by fire on the morning of May 13, 1912. Its misfortune was a precedent merely to its inevitable demolition to make way for apartments in the neighborhood.

The height of the hills above the river valley is shown at East 233d Street, the northern boundary of the cemetery. There was formerly a dangerous crossing of the Harlem tracks at the Woodlawn station on this street, but in January, 1905, the bridge over the tracks was completed and opened. Mundy's Lane is part of the boundary line between the borough and Mount Vernon; it is the ancient road leading from Hunt's Bridge in the Mile Square to the Kingsbridge (or Boston) Road, leading to Eastchester. The Kingsbridge Road, an old highway dating back to 1673, takes us through Edenwald to near old St. Paul's, East-

chester, though over the city line. Here is the old Seton estate, through which runs Rattlesnake Brook, upon which there was formerly a mill. The site of the old mill is in a narrow and picturesque gorge where the water has a descent of about thirty feet in two falls, to which the name of Seton's Falls has been given. It has been for several generations a favorite place for a stroll, or for picnics by the inhabitants of the neighborhood. In the spring, the dogwood blossoms whiten the woods, and through the whole year the ground in carpeted with all kinds of wild flowers in their turn, as nature here has full sway and has been but little interfered with by man. After a heavy rain, a considerable body of water comes over the falls, which adds to the beauty and wildness of the scene. In the plan of the streets adopted in 1903, provision was made for a public park at this place.

Rattlesnake Brook crosses the Boston (or Coles) Road. To the east of the road the stream is dammed, forming Holler's Pond, from which the ice supply of the neighborhood is cut and upon the frozen surface of which the people are able to skate. There is also a factory for the making of artificial ice. Near this pond is located a small settlement, which is part of the old village of Eastchester within the borough. A lane leads down the neck to Reid's mill, about a mile from the Boston Road. This lane used to be a very beautiful one; but in 1904 and 1905 most of the trees were cut down for firewood and the beauty of the landscape has been much decreased in consequence. There are several magnificent old trees on the Boston Road near the entrance to the lane, but these too are suffering from the grading of the post road, now being made into a State road. At the end of the lane we come to the salt meadows of Eastchester Creek, which stretch away for several miles, and over which there is no way of passing on foot, unless we go to Pelham Bridge on the south, or to Prospect Hill on the north. These meadows are not without their picturesqueness, and Edward Gay has depicted them in several pictures.

Formerly the end of the lane at Eastchester Creek was called Sander's Landing. In 1739, there was erected there a tidal mill by Thomas Shute and Joseph Stanton. The mill passed through several hands until 1766, when it was bought by John Bartow, who, in 1790, sold it to John Reid, whose son Robert was the last miller. The mill was thus known as "Bartow's," but more commonly as "Reid's Mill." It was for many years the town mill, and as such passed into the possession of the city of New York, at the time of annexation. It was a great barn-like structure of wood and was blown down in a storm about 1900, so that nothing now remains of it except the foundation stones. Near by is a picturesque old structure, probably the home of the miller, the oldest part of which, so it is said, dates from 1668.

Near the bridge by which the Boston Road crosses the Hutchinson River, a pleasant road leads down to the right to "Invermere," known formerly as Hunt's Landing. There is a famous strawberry farm on this road a short distance from the post road. A few hundred rods above Rattlesnake Brook, the White Plains Road, now called Columbus Avenue, branches off to the left and passes by the ancient green in front of old St. Paul's, its route being over the old Boston road of 1673 for some distance. As it sweeps down the hill, it passes a gateway guarded by quaint and imposing white posts. This is the entrance to Halsey Place, which was the executive mansion of President John Adams in October and November, 1797, several of his letters being dated from Eastchester. During that year, Philadelphia, the Federal capital, was visited by yellow fever, and Adams took up his residence in the Halsey house, then occupied by his daughter Abigail, and her husband, Colonel William Smith. During the Revolution the communion service, the Bible, and other valuables presented to St. Paul's Church by Queen Anne, were buried upon this property and dug up after the war; this was to prevent them from being looted by the British, who used the church about half a mile above for the hospital, and who frequently occupied the section in force, so that it thus became the scene of many a raid and warlike encounter.

The smith of the village of Eastchester, Vincent by name, occupied this house during the Revolution. It is related that upon one occasion, the day being a Sunday, a French officer with the Americans insisted upon having his horse shod; and on the refusal of Gilbert Vincent to do work on a Sunday, the officer struck him to the ground, killing him. Elijah Vincent, in a spirit of vengeance, then took a commission from the British and became a terror in the apprehension of the American and French officers, who had occasion to operate in the neighborhood of Eastchester. According to the stories handed down by tradition, Elijah Vincent more than revenged his brother's violent death.

The references to wolf-pits in the records and to bounties offered for the extermination of the wolves show that there were many of these animals in the ancient township. Where wolves abounded there were also deer; and the finding of quantities of arrowheads and other implements of the chase shows that this was a favorite hunting-ground of the Indians. No signs of permanent habitation have been discovered, and it is supposed that the Siwanoys occupied the land only when hunting; that they claimed ownership and that this was admitted by the whites is shown by the early Indian deeds secured by the first settlers. Some years ago the National Government deepened the channel of Eastchester Creek, straightened its course, and dredged out a basin so that vessels could ascend the stream at high tide and discharge

their cargoes at the docks at Eastchester. Regular steamboats carrying freight made daily trips to and from New York as late as 1900.

"If anyone should ask what is the most conspicuous landmark in all Eastchester, he would at once be told of St. Paul's Church," writes R. Comfort. One glance at the massive stone tower, with the date of erection (1765) quaintly carved over the doorway, one look at the well filled graveyard, containing six thousand bodies, lying peacefully asleep, one of them said to be petrified, and a single examination of the unique interior, with its strange collection of relics far up in the belfry, is enough to convince the most doubtful of its striking historic interest. Perhaps the ancient bell (1758), the treasured Bible, printed in London in 1759, and the immense Prayer Book, printed in London in 1715, are the greatest curiosities of all. In the sacred care of the big safe in the vestry room are kept these two latter. They have the distinction, all three of them, of having been buried during the War of the Revolution for safekeeping, dug up afterwards and restored again to the church. One thing about the great prayer book cannot fail to attract attention. This is the place where is printed, in large antique type, the prayer for King George. Just after the Revolution the rector, whose sentiments were far from being with the royal family across the seas, pasted a strip of paper across the king's name, writing in its place that of George Washington. Today those strips have been torn away, showing the page as originally printed, but the stubs are still to be seen where the patriotic rector showed his honor for the first American President.

A well-known tavern stood south of the old church, which was in 1728 kept by William Baker, and during the Revolution by Charles Guion, who was descended from the French Guion, original settler of New Rochelle. It is related that Washington was detained by sickness in this house, and that Mrs. Guion acted as his nurse. It is said that the tavern became widely known by the exhibition in it of the petrified body, discovered in this condition on its removal from a city cemetery to St. Paul's churchyard. There was also on the Boston Road the hostelry well known as "Odell's Tavern." The trees on the site and the moss-grown barns are evidences of the early date at which the original inn was built.

In Pelham—Nearly all of the part of the township of Pelham that was taken within the city of New York is included within Pelham Bay Park. There is a small section in the vicinity of the Boston Road not included in the park, and also City Island; the first part is negligible. There are now many different ways of reaching City Island. Until 1912 a one-horse, bob-tailed car, a relic of former days, used to connect with the railroad station, and for a fare of five cents, the passenger was taken to Marshall's Corners at the end of Rodman's Neck; for an additional fare, he was carried to the end of the island. In 1910 a monorail electric train was inaugurated; but the first day of business was an unfortunate one, for the car met with an accident and several people were killed. City Island was originally called Minnewits, or Great

Minnefords, Island. The origin of the name is doubtful, it being ascribed to Peter Minuit, the Dutch Governor and purchaser of the island of Manhattan, and also to Minnefords, Minifers, or Minnewies, the original Indian proprietors. It was within Thomas Pell's purchase of 1654, and also within his manor-grant of Pelham. It received its name of City Island from a scheme of the inhabitants of 1761-62 to establish upon the island a city that was to outrival New York. General Heath uses the name "New City Island" in his "Memoirs," so that the name must have been well established in Revolutionary days. On May 10, 1763, a ferry was established "acrosst from Mr. Samuel Rodman's Neck to said Island." The same year a ferry was established from the north end of the island and leased to Mrs. Deborah Kicks, "the best and fairest bidder." On May 13, 1766, a ferry was established between the south end of the island across the Sound to Long Island; it was leased to John Barnes for five years. The first purchaser from Thomas Pell, the manor-lord, was John Smith, of the town of Bruckland (Brooklyn). The island on June 19, 1761, came into possession of Benjamin Palmer, the builder of the free bridge at Spuyten Duyvil, for £2,730. He appears to have suffered considerable loss during the war; for, in 1788, he sent a petition to "His Excellency, George Clinton, Esq., Governor in and over the State of New York, and Vice-Admiral of the navy of the same," for relief. This failing he again petitioned for redress of grievances in 1789, this time to "His Excellency, George Washington, President of the United States." His distress was mitigated by a subscription.

The Revolution prevented the accomplishment of the plan of building a city upon the island, though it was revived in 1790. The island was cut up into 4,500 lots, each twenty feet front and one hundred feet in depth, besides two squares, of thirty lots each, reserved for churches, meeting-houses, schools and the like. Ten pounds was the stated price of the lots, and many were bought and sold at that price. In 1818 Nicholas Haight and Joshua Husted owned nearly all of the island, as well as Rodman's Neck and what became later the Marshall estate. In the year following, forty-two acres passed into the possession of George W. Hoston. In 1804 the State Legislature passed an act allowing the construction of a bridge between the island and the mainland, and subscriptions were started for its erection; but the attempt failed for want of support. On December 1, 1873, a toll bridge, erected by a stock company, was thrown open to the public. It occupied the site of the bridge laid down on the map of 1761. It was one thousand feet long with a draw of one hundred and twenty feet; the draw being that of the original Coles, or Harlem Bridge, at Third Avenue. A large part of the materials used in its construction came from the old United

States frigate "North Carolina," which had been condemned and sold by the National Government. This bridge was made a free bridge in 1895, at the time of annexation, and was replaced by the present fine steel structure, constructed at a cost of $200,000, not including approaches, which was opened for public use on July 4, 1901. Work had been begun upon it in December, 1898.

In spite of the ferry and the bridge, City Island had been more or less isolated before the opening of Pelham Bay Park in 1888, and the advent of the bicycle. The inhabitants were engaged chiefly in fishing, piloting, and oyster culture. The fishing was formerly very fine, and upon a Sunday or other holiday the old bridge was lined with ardent anglers. The demolition of the old wooden bridge drove many of the anglers to the wharf at the south end of the island, at the end of the island's one long thoroughfare. In 1762, the owners of the island petitioned for four hundred feet under water, and the land was granted to them by Lieutenant-Governor Cadwallader Colden, on May 27, 1763. When the new wharf at the lower end of the island was built in 1901, we find Mrs. De Lancey asserting her claims to the land under water as an inheritrix of the ancient grant, but the case was decided against her. There are several yacht clubs located here and the activities connected with the water constitute the principal business of the island. Several shipyards build and repair pleasure vessels, and in the winter season many of the crack yachts are laid up and housed there. Upon several occasions the defenders of America's Cup have been so laid up. The yachting industry is principally with sailing vessels; in stormy weather, many sailing vessels from the Sound find safe anchorage near the island until the weather moderates. There are numerous bathing pavilions, and the bathing is considered helpful, as the island extends far into the Sound. Rowboats, sail-boats, and small launches are plentiful, and there are many places where they can be hired for sailing and fishing, while several of the hotels and restaurants have more than a local fame. The population was self-contained and isolated, and it took the people a little time to get accustomed to interference from Manhattan, after annexation. Probably the greatest object of interest on the island is the "Macedonian Hotel." It bears the following legend:

"This House is the remains of the English frigate 'Macedonian,' captured on Sunday, October 25th, 1812, by the United States Frigate 'United States,' commanded by Capt. Stephen Decatur, U. S. N. The action was fought in Lat. 24° N., Long. 29° 30' W., that is about 600 miles N. W. of the Cape De Verde Islands off the W. coast of Africa and towed to Cowbay in 1874." However, it would appear that while the house is the remains of a ship "Macedonian," it was not the one captured in Decatur's gallant action. The original British "Macedonian"

was a new ship at the time of her capture, and was afterwards repaired and taken into the United States Navy. She was blockaded in the Thames River, Connecticut, until the close of the War of 1812, and then served as a cruiser until 1828, after which she did nothing. In 1835 she was broken up at the Norfolk, Virginia, navy yard. In the meantime Congress appropriated funds to build a new ship of the same name, which was begun in 1832 and launched at Gosport, Virginia, in 1836. She was rebuilt at Brooklyn in 1852, and broken up in 1874 at Cow Bay, Long Island. For a time this second, American-built "Macedonian" was used as a practice ship at the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, where the figurehead of the original British frigate is still preserved as a relic of the heroic days of our infant navy.

CHAPTER IX

OFFICIAL RECORD AND PERSONNEL

The most important event in the history and official record of The Bronx was annexation to the city of New York. That event did not come about easily. It was preceded by years of struggle in which a few farseeing men fought the battle against those who did not equal them in foresight. There were bitter opponents of annexation both in the city and the territory above the Harlem. There were those in The Bronx territory who saw no advantage in being tied to more populous Manhattan; and there were people in the city of New York who believed that there was nothing to be gained by the city in annexing what appeared to them to be a vast expanse of farm land. Nobody in the days that preceded annexation ever imagined that New York City would expand northward as it has expanded or that The Bronx would become so rapidly populous and wealthy. The development that followed annexation exceeded the brightest hopes of its promoters. It did enormous good to The Bronx and it added enormously to the greatness of the city. The Bronx grew in time by leaps and bounds, and its growth has been due in large part to its inclusion in the metropolitan area, its increase in self-government, and the extension of improvement to the city limits, the marking out and grading of the streets, and the development of transportation. Three men were prominently active in putting annexation through, William Herring, William Cauldwell, and Senator Robertson. In the history of The Bronx these are destined to stand side by side as architects of its early greatness with men like James L. Wells, and Louis F. Haffen. Mr. Haffen's name meets us at every turn in the history of The Bronx during the last generation. Mr. Wells is known universally as "The Father of The Bronx." He had already represented the First District of Westchester in the Assembly at Albany in 1879, a district that in those days started at the Harlem River and ended at Hastings—now represented by nine members in The Bronx and four in Westchester. In 1880 he represented the 24th District of New York. Later he left the Assembly to become a member of the Board of Aldermen of New York primarily to carry into local effect the general legislation he secured at Albany, to regulate and grade the streets, organize the Board of Supplies, see to the building of sewers, and so on. He was the closest guardian of the interests of his native Bronx during the six years he was Treasurer of the State. But an

interesting history that cannot be neglected was the prelude to this modern work.

The interval between the declaration of peace following the War of the Revolution and the adoption of the Federal Constitution in 1789 was marked in the country included within The Bronx and in the county to which it belonged by little of concerted action in reference to the politics of the State and national government. In 1784 General Pierre Van Cortlandt, of the town of Cortlandt, was lieutenant-governor of the State of New York, and General Lewis Morris, of Morrisania, and General Stephen Ward, of Eastchester, were members of the State Senate. General Thomas, of Rye, was a member of the lower house. His colleagues were Philip Pell, Jr., of Pelham, Abijah Gilbert, of Salem, Ebenezer Purdy, of North Salem, Zebediah Mills, and Samuel Haight. They are described as sterling men in the trying times in which their activities were cast, having shown their ability and devotion to their country. In the year that followed, the election substituted Ebenezer Burling, of Eastchester, and Ebenezer Lockwood, of Poundridge, in place of Mills and Haight. In 1786 Jonathan C. Tompkins of Scarsdale and Samuel Drake were chosen instead of Burling and Purdy; and in 1787 Jonathan Rockwell, Joseph Strong, and Ebenezer Purdy, the last of whom was again returned, took the seats of Drake, Gilbert and Pell, who had become Surrogate. Richard Morris of Scarsdale had been chief justice of the State during the period that elapsed following 1779, and John Thomas of Rye, and Jesse Hunt of Westchester, sheriffs from the year 1777. Richard Hatfield, of White Plains, was Surrogate from 1778 to 1787. In the list of supervisors of the county from 1783 to 1789 occur at least half a dozen of the names of the county officials just given, and to these may be added the following conspicuous members of the board:

Benjamin Stegenson, of New Rochelle; also one of the judges of the county; Gilbert Budd, of Rye; Abel Smith, of North Castle; Hachaliah Browne, and Thaddeus Crane, both of Upper Salem; Daniel Horton, of White Plains; James Hunt, of Eastchester; William Miller, of Harrison; James Kronkhite, of Ryker's Patent, or Cortlandt; and Philip Pell, of Pelham, who was, in 1787, also sheriff of the county. From these names and from the details previously given may be gathered a conception of the leadership in the political affairs of the region in review during the period immediately succeeding the termination of the War of the Revolution.

The earliest political differences of a serious nature which arose in the newly formed State sprang up as the generally realized insufficiency of the government by an authority arising out of the Articles of Confederation, brought forth a variety of plans for the increase of its powers and

CHARTER REVISION COMMISSION OF NEW YORK CITY APPOINTED BY THEODORE ROOSEVELT. THIS COMMISSION PREPARED AND DRAFTED THE CHARTER WHICH GAVE BOROUGH GOVERNMENT TO THE BRONX AND OTHER BOROUGHS

its efficiency. It was felt in that early time of formation that the union of the States was a union merely in name, inasmuch as the credit which that union established was at the mercy of the States in their dealings with it. To the disappointment keenly felt by the energetic friends of the Revolution was added a mortifying sense of the apparent fulfilment of the predictions of the enemy of the Republic, that the whole movement would prove a failure, not more from its own folly than from the incompetency of the untaught and inexperienced movers in it. In its characterization of John Hancock and Samuel Adams, one of the pro-British newspapers remarked: "When the lunacies of the former are separated from the villainies of the latter, the deluge of destruction that is certainly, though slowly, rolling after them, will rapidly come on and overwhelm them and their infatuated votaries in prodigious ruin." Throughout the region in which the "Westchester County Farmer" had poured forth his entreaties and forebodings in view of the uprising against British authority, the anxiety for the success of the new government could not but be intensified by these recollections, and by daily contact with the many who had anticipated disaster. But notwithstanding all this desire to avoid a failure, there was a strong feeling that the safety of the people's rights would be much better secured under the more readily invoked protection of the State than under the distant and often distracted care of the General Government. The political head of the State of New York at this time was George Clinton, its great war Governor, who, by his popularity, as much as by his office, was possessed of great influence with the people. While professing a sincere desire for the continuance of the Federal compact, and for its usefulness, and while declaring that the General Government should inspire respect at home and abroad, Governor Clinton resisted with ardor and firmness the making of any concessions which would weaken the State authority or further abridge its powers. The influence of his position of authority and of his arguments was considerable. But still abler and more practiced pens and voices were showing into what a pitiable condition public affairs were running. General Schuyler, Chief Justice Livingston, John Jay and Alexander Hamilton, were setting forth and urging the necessity for a change. Another call, which commanded a hearing all over the country, was heard from Virginia, suggesting that the powers of the central government be increased.

Westchester and the Constitution—In the convention which met at Philadelphia the county shares indeed with the State-at-large in the honor of being represented by General Hamilton, but it has also to be recalled that in the person of Gouverneur Morris, who was a delegate

from Pennsylvania, but who was born on Westchester soil and who returned again to represent her in the United States Senate, this region had an additional representative in the work of fashioning the important instrument which was its chief result. In due time the amended Constitution was offered to the States for adoption. It met in some quarters with the most energetic opposition. Not only were its main proposals violently criticised, but the conduct of the convention, in transcending, as it was claimed, its legal powers, was bitterly assailed. "Instead of amending the Constitution, it had framed one," was the gravamen of one accusation. In Albany the new copy of the Constitution was publicly burnt. In the choice of delegates to the convention which was at that time ordered to meet at Poughkeepsie, to pass upon its adoption by the State, the greatest excitement prevailed, and the terms Federalist and anti-Federalist, as applied to separate parties, began to be used. The result in Westchester County proved that a deep interest was felt in the maintenance of a union of the States. Thaddeus Crane, of North Salem, Richard Hatfield, of White Plains, Philip Livingston and Lewis Morris, of Westchester, Lott W. Sarles, of New Castle, and Philip Van Cortlandt were chosen over their anti-Federalist opponents by very large majorities. The convention met, and on July 26, by a vote of thirty to twenty-seven, ratified the proposed Constitution. In the affirmative vote are found the names of all the Westchester delegates. At the election for members of the Assembly the strong party feeling was manifested by a complete change in the representation, the following persons, loyal Federalists, being returned: Thaddeus Crane, of North Salem; Jonathan Horton and Philip Livingston, of Westchester; Judge Nathan Rockwell, of Lewisboro; Walter Seaman and General Philip Van Cortlandt. At the assembling of the Legislature in December, such was the political complexion of the two houses that the five delegates to represent the State in the Continental Congress were chosen from the anti-Federal party, one of the five being Philip Pell, of Pelham. The satisfactory working of the new Constitution, the popularity of Washington's administration and the great advantages which the proximity of the seat of government was offering, were all favorable to the Federal Party. Majorities in its favor continued throughout the succeeding ten years, in which two of the elections held, those of 1792 and 1796, had a direct bearing on national politics. Washington entered without dissent upon the second term of office, General Stephen Ward, of Eastchester, being one of the electors of the State of New York, and in 1797, John Adams, with the twelve votes of the State of New York, was chosen in opposition to Thomas Jefferson. At the election in 1798 there were plain indications of the falling away of the strength of the administration party

throughout the State, which, although not borne out by the result in the year that followed, were more than realized at the presidential contest of 1800.

Among the electors chosen by the Legislature was Colonel Pierre Van Cortlandt, Jr., who had married a daughter of ex-Governor Clinton, still the leader of the Democratic-Republican Party in the State. General Thomas, of Rye, an active Democrat-Republican, who had been out of the Assembly for some years, was again restored to it. The hold thus taken upon the popular vote was retained with much tenacity during the whole period of Jefferson's administration. The country was on the high road to prosperity. All interests shared in the general thrift. The ruling party had naturally to benefit from such circumstances. Its leading men in Westchester County in those days of Jefferson rule, besides Judge Thomas and Colonel Van Cortlandt, were Senator Ebenezer Purdy, of North Salem; Abijah Gilbert, of Salem; and Jonathan Ward, of Eastchester. The position of Senator Purdy was also a commanding one in the Democratic-Republican Party at large. In 1802 he was a member of the Council of Appointment, in whose hands was the political patronage of the State. In 1803, as chairman of the caucuses of the Democratic-Republican members of the State Senate, he exercised a commanding influence in securing the nomination of General Morgan Lewis and preventing that of Aaron Burr as the standard bearer of the Democratic-Republican Party in the State in the election for Governor. There is no doubt that the movement which forced his resignation of his seat in 1806 arose from the knowledge of his devotion to Governor Lewis, whose prestige and strength it was thought desirable to destroy. It would seem that General Thomas, who was transferred from the House to the Senate in 1804, was in perfect accord with Mr. Purdy, and being himself a member of the Council of Appointment in 1806, joined with his associates in removing De Witt Clinton, the pronounced opponent of Governor Lewis, from the mayoralty of the city of New York.

An event that created interest in the valley of the Bronx and in Westchester was the election of Daniel D. Tompkins to the Governorship of the State. Mr. Tompkins, although never representing Westchester County in an official position, having in early life made New York his home, was nevertheless a native of the county, having been born at Scarsdale, and being the descendant of one of the first settlers of the adjoining town of Eastchester. His father, Jonathan G. Tompkins, had represented the county in the legislative body, which adopted the first State Constitution in 1777, and also in the convention which framed the second in 1801. He was a member of the Assembly during the Revolution, and for several years after the close of the war. He

was for a long period a judge of the county, and at the time of his son Daniel's election as Governor he had been for twenty-one years a Regent of the University of the State. The opponent of Daniel D. Tompkins was Governor Lewis, the Federalists in this, as in previous elections, not nominating or advocating any candidates from their own ranks. At the same time Jonathan Ward was promoted to the State Senate. The new senator was a son of General Stephen Ward, of earlier reputation.

Embargo and Non-Intercourse—There arose at this time questions which in their bearings on political parties involved more than personal considerations. The British Government, with its usual total indifference to the rights of other nations where its own interests were involved, adopted an order by which trade between its enemies and neutral powers was forbidden. France, in its turn, issued decrees which had the same result. The United States having expostulated with these governments to no effect, Congress, at the instigation of Jefferson, passed an embargo act on all vessels within the limits of the United States. No clearances were to be furnished and vessels sailing from one port of the United States to another were required to give bonds that the goods with which they were laden should be landed in some port of the United States. The object of this bill, in the language of Madison, was to make it "the interest of all nations to change the system which has driven our commerce from the sea." "Great Britain will feel it (the embargo) in her manufactures, in the loss of naval stores, and... in the supplies essential to her colonies." "France will feel it in the loss of all which she has hitherto received through our neutral commerce, and her colonies will be cut off from the sale of their productions and the source of their supplies." "They have forced us into this measure by the direct effect on us of measures founded in an alleged regard for their own eventual safety and essential interests." "The ocean presents a field only where no harvest is to be reaped but that of danger, of spoliation, and of disgrace." It will be readily understood that this measure, bearing so hardly upon the interests of all classes of the community would naturally call forth violent protest and put to the severest strain the devotion of the Democratic-Republican Party to their great head, the President, and to his destined successor, the then Secretary of State. The representative in Congress at the time from the Westchester district, General Philip Van Cortlandt, voted against the Embargo, and was drawn into opposition to Madison's aspirations. It is certain also that the Vice-President, George Clinton, did not approve of the act. However, in spite of their dissatisfaction, these gentlemen still adhered to their

party affinities, and by their course, no doubt, greatly counteracted the tendency of these measures to produce political changes among their followers in New York. So their columns seem not to have seriously wavered in Westchester County at the senatorial election that followed, when the Southern District, which lay in New York City, Long Island, Staten Island, and Westchester County, elected both the Democratic-Republican candidates. In the selection of presidential candidates, which soon followed, the fact that the difference on this point in the party was regarded as of no moment is apparent in the concession of six votes to George Clinton, one of which in all likelihood belonged to Mr. White, of Westchester County. The Embargo Bill was repealed before the close of Mr. Jefferson's administration and in place of it was enacted what has been entitled "the Non-Intercourse Law," which forbade both importation and exportation. This change, in connection with fresh evidences of English animosity, seems to have had the effect of intensifying the national feeling, and the consequence was in 1810 an overwhelming defeat of the Federalists in all portions of the State. But the division in the Democratic-Republican Party that succeeded this victory gave their opponents the opportunity in the presidential contest two years after to decide to which of the Democratic-Republican candidates should fall the vote of the State, and the suffrages were given to De Witt Clinton. Madison was, however, reëlected. General Van Cortlandt ardently supported Clinton, but Governor Tompkins, though unwilling to be regarded as inimical to him, felt himself bound to support Mr. Madison as the representative not only of the national Democracy, but of the measures which Congress had adopted for the maintenance of the national honor. Clinton, however, would allow of no half-way support. The consequence was that the difference soon shaped itself in the State as between these two favorite citizens, and it needed but little time to prove that the largest sympathies were with the farmer's boy, as the Governor was styled. Governor Tompkins is described as a man of more than ordinary intellectual force and culture, but is better remembered for a cordiality and kindliness of manner that gave him great acceptableness and influence in his private and public relations. In the year 1815 Jonathan Ward, who had represented Westchester County in the State Senate, was sent as member of Congress to Washington and there is little doubt that this election had much political significance, from Ward's known opposition to Clinton. When the presidential choice was to be made of a successor to Madison it was evident that the choice lay between James Monroe and Governor Tompkins. The preferences of Madison had much weight with the Democratic-Republican Party, and Monroe was elected, with Governor Tompkins as Vice-President. With the

removal of this gentleman to Washington the fortunes of De Witt Clinton revived, and the Democratic-Republicans naming him, he was, almost without opposition, elected Governor of the State. But the truce in party dispute, so welcome, was but the precursor of a contest in the State, and in the county of Westchester, of uncommon bitterness. It might be right here to state that the championship by Clinton of the measures for the construction of the Erie Canal, the importance of which was the more evident as the work progressed, gave him an increased hold upon the confidence of the people. This, however, was more immediately felt in the neighborhoods to be benefited than in others, as Westchester County, where the influence could only be indirect.

Old Time Electioneering—Such calm as existed was of a deceitful character, according to observers of Clinton's almost unanimous election as Governor. The elevation of one who paid so little regard to party restraints, was exceedingly repugnant to the extreme Democracy. The Federalists in their turn, in expectation of some advantage, were only too glad to revive the old controversies, and Clinton was inclined to draw the line as between his personal friends and opponents. In the Westchester region the election for senators in the spring of 1819 was carried on with great animation. John Townsend, of Eastchester, who had been, a year or two before, a member of the Lower House, was elected Senator in opposition to Pierre Van Cortlandt, the Clinton candidate. It was at this time that the significant name, "Bucktail," designating the opponents of De Witt Clinton, sprang into use. To the Tammany Society, Clinton was particularly odious, and, as one of the insignia of the order was the tail of the deer in their hats, the other party soon applied the term to all who sympathized with them in their feelings and action. The "bucktail," an emblem of success in the chase, was gladly appropriated by the anti-Clintonians and became the favorite decoration in each political campaign. It must have been somewhere about this time that the following incidents, related in a journal of a trip to visit Chief Justice Jay and General Philip Van Cortlandt, occurred: "We now found ourselves in the town of North Castle, the inhabitants of which were assembled at this time to choose their officers. We discovered that they were all Bucktails. My friend whose enthusiasm counterbalances his prudence, ventured on the hopeless task of converting them to Clintonism. Accordingly, having singled out one who appeared to be the decentest man among them, he led him into a long argument, by which to convince him that Tompkins was a defaulter, and consequently unfit to be entrusted with the highly responsible office of chief magistrate of this great State.

That the Bucktail, in his attempt to prove the immaculate purity of the man of his party, was foiled by the superior address and ingenuity of his antagonist, is not saying that he was convinced." Elsewhere it is reported in the journal—" 'Who is this?' whispered I. 'Dr. C——k, the sheriff of the county,' replied my companion, 'and a warm Clintonian.' 'And you, doctor, I am glad to see you, too; how goes the election?' Here a dialogue commenced on the topic next to the heart of these two men, who, alike forgetful of the rain, which now began to fall,... these two mad politicians kept up their jabber a full half hour, cold, wind, and rain notwithstanding." Another extract is as follows: "A few minutes sufficed to bring us to the ancient seat of the Van Cortlandts... I had not another opportunity of drawing Hannibal into the recital of his campaign till the hour of retiring; his attention was wholly occupied by Cooper and his plans for bringing in De Witt Clinton." In spite of the fact that Governor Clinton was reëlected in 1820, a strong blow was the actual result, for both to the Senate and the Assembly pronounced majorities against him were returned.

Tompkins, who had been brought out to oppose Clinton, had a majority of three thousand two hundred and thirty-one in the Southern Senatorial District, which included Westchester County. The address at this election of a body of Federalists, which, it is asserted, had very little influence with the main force, is here recalled, because on the list of signatures to it the first is that of a noted citizen of Mamaroneck, Peter Jay Munro, a lawyer of much eminence in Westchester, while there were other names having connections with interests in what is now The Bronx. The significance of this paper was not only its open assault on the friends of Governor Clinton for their devotion to him, but in the galvanic display of the death scene of the distinguished party to which they had belonged, the signers sought their own future political advancement. For two successive terms the Third Congressional District of the State, which consisted of Rockland and Westchester, was ably and faithfully represented by Caleb Tompkins, of White Plains, and for three years, from 1820 to 1823, the position of County Judge was held by William Jay, son of the Chief Justice.

Revision of the Constitution—The great political event which thereafter fell under notice was the assembling of the convention ordered for the revision of the State constitution, and the presence in it of three distinguished citizens of the county, all members of its bar—Peter A. Jay, Peter J. Munro, and Jonathan Ward. It would seem that whatever the motive elsewhere the political motive did not enter into the selections thus made north of the Harlem. Governor Tompkins was called upon to preside over the convention, and in the appointment of

committees it is noteworthy that Peter Jay Munro, before referred to, who lived at Mamaroneck, and who had connections with The Bronx, was made chairman of the committee on the judiciary department and Mr. Ward a member of that on the council of revision. One of the noted periods in the debate of this body was that in which the right of the colored population to vote at elections was discussed. The question was handled very dispassionately, but Jay's speech appears to have been one of the very ablest on the subject. By far the severest work of the convention was the consideration of the report of the judiciary committee, when strong political feeling was aroused. The question really was the disposition of the old judges. Munro, although assisted by Van Buren, struggled unsuccessfully to prevent the sweeping change. At the session of the Legislature following the convention, Senator John Townsend, of Eastchester, was made a member of the Council of Appointment, the sessions of which were the last held in the State, its powers passing by the new Constitution to the Governor and the Senate. Townsend, at the next election to the county, was made its Sheriff, and John Hunter, of Pelham, was returned under the new apportionment one of the four Senators of the Second Senatorial District. In 1824, in the list of presidential electors, the last selected by the Legislature are the names of the two brothers, John and James Drake, both natives of Westchester County, the first residing in New York, and the latter on his estate at Eastchester. The election for President, as is noted in the national histories, was thrown into the House of Representatives, where John Quincy Adams, after several ballotings was elected, Joel Frost, of Putnam County, the member from the Fourth Congressional District, giving his vote to William H. Crawford, of Georgia, then Secretary of the Treasury.

Decades Preceding Civil War—In referring to the thirty years before Abraham Lincoln's election there are a number of facts which merit record in any historical narrative of the territory just north of the Harlem. General Aaron Ward was six times elected a member of Congress, fulfilling his duties to the eminent satisfaction of his constituents. He had been an officer in the war of 1812 and was for some years Brigadier-General of the Fifteenth Brigade and Fourth Division of the Militia of the State. In the convention in 1846 for amending the constitution General Ward represented the county and was made chairman of the committee on the militia and military officers. John Hunter of Hunter's Island, Pelham, in 1823, for one year, and from 1836, for eight years Senator from Westchester, was a man of large wealth and a man of agreeable character. He was a strong supporter of Van Buren, during whose administration Philip Schuyler,

a brother-in-law of Mr. Hunter, and resident of Westchester for many years, held the consulship at London. Mr. Hunter was also a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1846. Allen MacDonald of White Plains held a seat in the Senate for two terms and is said to have been very popular. In 1836 he was appointed Adjutant-General of the State.

During the anti-Masonic agitation there was less feeling exhibited in the region immediately north of the Harlem than in the western part of the State. The brethren of the order quietly abandoned their local organization and awaited the passing of the storm. The effect, however, of this ephemeral political movement was to make the Democratic Party as a party more compact and as a result stronger and better prepared for its mission. This was illustrated nowhere more thoroughly than among the farmers of Westchester and the vicinity, who had the reputation of not being easily moved from their path, once they had been set in a certain direction. The business disasters of 1837 made more of an impression on them than the movement against the Masons. What was regarded as the impulsive trifling of President Jackson with the finances of the country, which at that time was supposed to throw a halo round his inflexible courage and will, brought upon his successor, through the troubles which during his administration the people were compelled to suffer, a degree of obloquy which President Van Buren, it was agreed in a later time, did not individually deserve. The fact that the Democratic majority in the country was reduced from over one thousand two hundred in 1836 to two hundred and seventy in 1840 shows, making all allowances for the humors of the log-cabin and hard cider campaign, that a deliberate, sober, second thought of the people was making Van Buren and his party eat the bread of affliction. Following this date for a period of about two years the parties were more closely matched, though in reality the lines of both were much disturbed. The questions concerning the tariff and internal improvement were those which divided the professed politicians, but personal preferences and antipathies in certain divisions and localities were confounding plans and calculations. The advent too of a secret political organization, styled native American, which had a large following in certain towns, was unsettling as to the county and town nominations and elections. And in addition to all this there were the dissensions which sprang up as the question of the extension of slavery was discussed. As a result the majority of Polk in Westchester over Clay was smaller than that of his party four years before.

The admission of Texas into the Union, which increased the southern strength, and the war with Mexico, which necessarily followed it, added new subjects for differences of opinion and debate. At the guberna-

torial election, in 1846, the defection in the Democratic Party, which ensured the defeat of Silas Wright, brought on confusion and revolt. The feeling was intensified when the death of Silas Wright in the succeeding August was announced. During the summer, at the primary meetings and conventions of the Democracy, bitter struggles were taking place. In September the State convention met at Syracuse, and the Radicals, being deprived as they alleged of their proper representation, assembled in October, at Herkimer. Hunter's name appeared in the call. In this internal discussion the question involved the extension of slavery into the territories. The Herkimer convention demanded that the principle of non-extension, called also the Wilmot Proviso, be introduced into the party platform. The Whigs in the canvass of 1847 were generally victorious, but the seat of James E. Beers in the Assembly was contested by Colonel J. R. Hayward, who had held it in the previous year. Hayward was unsuccessful. In 1848 the breach between the two factions was made still wider at the meeting of the two conventions styled the "Old Hunker" and the "Barnburner," in both of which the Westchester Democrats were represented.

Following the nomination of General Lewis Cass for the presidency a complete division took place and separate national and state tickets were selected. Van Buren was named as the Free Soil candidate for the high position which he formerly held. In the election which followed the Whig candidate, General Zachary Taylor, who was elected, received in the Westchester region a majority over the entire opposing vote. General Cass fell behind Van Buren six thousand votes in the State, but exceeded him considerably in Westchester County. Some of the most ardent leaders of the Democracy of earlier days had by this time become the stanchest friends of the policies advocated by the Whigs. The old Senator and Sheriff, John Townsend, is mentioned in this connection. The history of the next four years is of the weakening of the hold thus obtained by the Whigs. The death of General Taylor, the accession of Mr. Fillmore, whose views were materially different from General Taylor's, and the exactions of what was called the "Southern Oligarchy," brought in serious dissensions among the friends of the party in power. The compromise measures of Mr. Clay, however, served both the great parties as a cement for the divisions in their ranks, and the presidential contest of 1852 was carried on within the old lines. The county of Westchester gave Franklin Pierce, Democrat, who was elected, twelve hundred clear majority. The number of votes cast had increased, it would seem, over sixteen hundred. Little is remembered of an exciting or important nature during this national administration, so far as the valley and territory of The Bronx is concerned, save the barely-suppressed indignation at the unnecessary

strain which the abetters of the Fugitive Slave Law were putting on the feeling for respect of the law among the people and the irritation caused by the intervention for conscience or for effect of the small body of the Abolitionists, who had no following in the region north of the Harlem.

However, the presidential election of 1856 brought into relief the fact of the general unwillingness among the population of being made uncomfortable by extremists. Although the free soil vote, less than one-fourth in 1848, was in 1856, more than one-third, it did not mean interference with slavery in the Southern States. The sentiment of abhorrence for the institution never took form beyond an opposition to its extension, and the rights of the States were as fully cherished as devotion to the Union was afterwards the absorbing principle. State sovereignty had free and open statement, and the charge of intermeddling, whenever alleged, was laughed down as an absurd insinuation. The course of Mr. Buchanan in his Lecompton policy, which was believed to be in direct contradiction to the principle of popular sovereignty, upon which he was elected, brought out the indignant opposition of a portion of his northern and western supporters, and their representatives in Congress, prominent among them being John B. Haskin of Fordham, the member from the Ninth District of New York, in which was The Bronx and Westchester County. In the congressional election of 1858, in the district north of the Harlem, the course of the administration was made the issue, and Governor Kemble, having been nominated by the Democratic Party, Haskin was placed by his friends in the political field. He was supported by the Republicans and elected by a small majority, over his opponent. To this election and to that in the Sixth District of Pennsylvania, where Mr. Hickman, an associate of Mr. Haskin, was in like manner opposed by the whole strength of the administration, the eyes of the whole country were turned. It was declared in Morrisania: "Should Mr. Haskin be defeated and an administration candidate be elected, every port-office and every office of the Government would be illuminated." An incident in Congress in the early part of 1860 brings to notice the determined and ardent part taken, after his reëlection, by the representative of Westchester County in the fulfilment of his duties. While addressing the House Mr. Haskin accidentally let fall from the breast pocket of his coat a loaded revolver. On the question of the propriety of carrying this weapon into the House, not only in Congress, but among his constituents and throughout the country, a warm discussion followed. The explanation given was preparation for self-defense in the unprotected neighborhood of Washington in which Mr. Haskin resided and in which much lawlessness prevailed. This incident, taken in connection with the rebellion

which soon followed and the tragic scenes that marked it, illustrated the perils of public life at the time and the unflinching determination of those called to mingle in the discussions introductory to the strife.

For and Against Lincoln—And so the country was carried to the stirring canvass and election in which Abraham Lincoln was placed in the presidential chair, and as a result of which the party that had so long conducted the government passed into long exile. At the State convention of the Democratic Party, in which Thomas Smith, Gilbert S. Lyon, and Abraham Hyatt, represented Westchester County including The Bronx territory, Edwin Cresswell, of Greenburgh, was named as one of the two delegates from the Ninth District to the national convention of the Democratic Party, to be held at Charlestown in the next April, to nominate its candidate for President. At a convention of Democrats of the Ninth District, dissatisfied with the action of the State convention, William Radford, of Yonkers, afterwards member of Congress, was chosen delegate to Charlestown. The State convention of the Republicans was held in April, 1860, at Syracuse, and E. F. Shonnard, of Yonkers, and Harvy Kidd, of Westchester, from the First Assembly District, Edmund J. Porter, of New Rochelle, and John J. Clapp, from the Second Assembly District, Odell Close, of North Salem, and J. H. Platt, of Ossining, from the Third Assembly District, represented the region north of the Harlem. Porter, formerly corporation counsel of the city of New York, was chosen as the delegate to the National Republican Convention at Chicago, at which Abraham Lincoln was nominated. On the ticket voted for presidential electors, on the Republican side, the Ninth Congressional District candidate was William H. Robertson, then county judge; and on the other ticket, whose motto was said to be "Union for the sake of the Union," was placed the name of Abraham B. Conger, of Rockland, formerly State Senator. Amid the heated discussions at the public gatherings preparatory to the election, peace and order were everywhere preserved; and when the result was reached, although the majority in The Bronx valley and in Westchester County generally, was against Lincoln, the verdict was, as readily as after any previous contest, accepted and sustained. Among those chosen for office at this time was Edward Haight, of the town of Westchester, who, although in the opposition, proved to be a valuable member in the Lower House at Washington, during the first two years of Lincoln's administration.

To the convention to be assembled at Albany, prior to Lincoln's inauguration, delegates from the three Assembly districts of Westchester County were chosen and a great number of well-known citizens attended its sessions. Among them were W. W. Woodworth and

Thomas Smith, of Yonkers; Darius Lyon, of Eastchester; Dr. W. J. McDermott, of Eastchester; Alexander M. Bruen, James E. Beers of Port Chester; John W. Mills and E. G. Sutherland, both of White Plains; Judge Robert S. Hart, Uriah Hill, William S. Tompkins, and James M. Baird, afterwards register of Westchester County. The following were selected as alternates: William Radford, James Parker, P. L. McClellan, Abraham Hatfield, William L. Bard, Henry E. Bird, Frost Horton, Columbus W. Seeley, Drs. Benjamin Brandreth and William P. Woodlock, and Jacob Odell. The assemblage proved to be one of the most important in the history of the State of New York. The call and the resolutions passed had in view the urging upon the government of a conciliatory course, the non-enforcement of its authority, unless attacked, and the adoption of measures of compromise. Perhaps the effect of this action in New York and of others at the time, was the longer restaining of the arm of the government until some overt act against its constituted authority should be committed which would unite the whole people in rebuking secession and disunion. A resolution offered by Judge Hart, of Westchester, and passed by this convention, looking to the possible necessity for further deliberation and action by this body, made it more clear how, by the precipitancy of the South, these well-meaning and persistent efforts for conciliation were rendered ineffectual.

Civil History in Bronx Territory—And now that we are on the eve of the War of the Rebellion, let us take a backward glance at the more detailed civil history of the territory which included what is now The Bronx as well as the Westchester County. It will be recalled that in 1642 John Throgmorton and some friends, who had suffered in the persecution against Roger Williams, obtained permission from the authorities of the New Netherlands to settle thirty-five families in what is now the town of Westchester. Doubtless the settlement was made in whole or in part shortly after this date. The territory had been purchased from the Indians and bore the name of Vredeland—land of peace. The grant was confirmed by the director-general. Throgmorton was to receive the land in fee-simple and to be allowed the free exercise of religion on condition that he, his associates and successors should acknowledge as their lords and patroons the Dutch authorities. This grant really made Throgmorton the patroon of the portion of Vredeland granted to him. The settlement was designated Oostdorp by the Dutch, and by the English, Easttown. This is the first civil division in what later became Westchester County and more specifically a part of the Borough of The Bronx.

A little before that transaction the Dutch had purchased from the

Indians a large tract of land on the Hudson River, north of Manhattan Island. Later Adriaen Van Der Donck received a grant of this tract, called Nepperhaem, where Yonkers has later stood, from the Dutch owners. This grant was made under the "Charter of Privileges and Exemptions," issued nearly twenty years before, which provided that any member of the company who should purchase of the Indians and found in any part of New Netherland outside of Manhattan a colony of fifty persons over fifteen years of age, should be in all respects the feudal lord and patroon of the territory of which he should thus take possession. This colony came to bear the name of Colen Donck. Here we have the second civil division. Then about a decade later Thomas Pell, of Fairfield, Connecticut, laid claim to Vredeland under color of an Indian conveyance a year before and called it Westchester. Settlement took place shortly after by a number of people from New England. However, the Dutch ordered the intruders off the ground to which they had a much prior claim, and a year later an order was issued by the director-general and council for the arrest of the immigrants from New England. A force sent for the purpose arrested twenty-three persons and brought them to New Amsterdam, as a result of which physical measures the prisoners offered to submit to Dutch authority. The submission of the English colonists was accepted. They, however, requested the privilege of choosing their own officers and of making and administering their own laws. They were granted the same privileges as the freemen of the villages of Middleborough, Brenkelen, Midwout, and Amersfoort. They were allowed to nominate double the number of persons, from whom the executive would make selections. These officers were then nominated as "Schepens." The civil designation given to Throgmorton's settlement of Oostdorp was continued.

In the municipal government of these settlements two systems, essentially different in principle, obtained, remarks O'Callaghan, in his "History of the New Netherlands:" "In the Colonies, the superintending power lodged in one individual, who, though the immediate vassal of the sovereign authority from whom he derived his lands, was himself Lord paramount in his Manor, where he not only represented the sovereign, but exercised feudal jurisdiction over his colonists, who stood towards him in the same relation he occupied towards the supreme head of the State . . . . In return for this obedience the patroon was bound to protect the colonists, who had the additional right to address themselves by appeal to the supreme authority at Amsterdam, in case they were either aggrieved or oppressed . . . . Towns or communes sometimes acquired independence of these feudal lords, and held their privileges directly from the crown. They were incorporated and held land in fee, and possessed the rights of patroons.

They named persons from whom the executive selected officers called "schepens." These constituted a board of communication with their sovereign head, were a local court of justice, and had a schout or sheriff, a secretary and a marshal. Their official term was one year; the hundred years before the Dutch settlement there were in Holland 300 such municipalities. Both ideas came with the people and were found here. Strange as it may seem, while every colony, and almost every hamlet, had its local magistracy, the citizens of New Amsterdam, the capital of the whole province, continued, greatly to their discontent, without a voice in the management of their municipal affairs. The government of the city still continued in the hands of the director-general and his council."

County Town and Courts—By the act of 1683 Westchester, now part of The Bronx, was made the county town and the courts were established there. From the report to the Committee on Trade in the Province of New York, of February 22, 1687, made by Governor Dongan, who had summoned the General Assembly of 1683, we gain some idea of the courts established by the act referred to:

Courts of Justice are now established by Act of Assembly, and they are:

1. The Court of Chancery, consisting of Governor and Council, is the Supreme Court of this province, to which appeals may be brought from any other court.

2. The Assembly finding the inconvenience of bringing ye peace, sheriffs, constables and other persons concerned from remote parts of this government to New York, did, instead of the Court of Assizes, which was yearly held for the whole Government of this province, erect a Court of Oyer and Terminer, to be held once every year within each county, for the determining of such matters as should arise within them respectively, the members of which court were appointed to be one of two judges of this province, assisted by three Justices of the Peace of that wherein such court is held, which Court of Oyer and Terminer had likewise power to hear appeals from any inferior Court.

4. There is likewise in every county, twice in every year (except in New York, where its four times, and in Albany, where its thrice), Courts of Sessions held by the Justices of the Peace for the respective counties, as in England.

5. In every town within ye Government there are 3 Commissioners appointed to hear and determine all matters of difference not exceeding the value of £5, which shall happen in the respective towns.

By the act of General Assembly passed May 6, 1691, and ordinance of 1699, several changes were made in the judicial system of the province. A Supreme Court was established, the Court of Oyer and Terminer as a distinct court was abolished, and its jurisdiction vested in the Supreme Court, which retained also the name for its criminal circuit; the functions of the Court of Sessions were confined to criminal matters, and a Court of Common Pleas, erected for each county, with cognizance of all actions, real, personal, and mixed, where the value exceeded five pounds.

From the civil list of the province of New York for 1693 we learn

something of civil affairs in the region of The Bronx and Westchester County:

Justices in Westchester County: Caleb Heathcote, Esqr., Judge of Common Pleas; Joseph Theall, Wm. Barnes, Daniel Strange, James Mott, John Hunt, Thomas Chadderton, Thomas Pinckney, Esqrs.; Benjamin Collier, Sheriff; Joseph Lee, Clerk of County; Collectors, Assessors, and Constables elective.

An account of all Establishments of Jurisdiction Within this Province.

Single Justice.—Every Justice of the Peace hath power to determine any suite or controversy to the value of 40s.

Quarter Sessions.—The Justices of the Peace in Quarter Sessions have all such powers and authorities as are granted in a commission of ye Peace in England.

County Court.—The County Court of Common Pleas hath cognizance of Civil Accons to any value, excepting what concerns title of land and noe Accon can be removed from this court, if the damage be under £20.

Supreme Court.—The Supreme Court hath powers of King's Bench, Common Pleas & Exchequer in England, and noe Accon can be removed from this court if under £100.

Chancery.—The Governor and Council are a Court of Chancery and have powers of the Chancery in England from whose sentence and decree nothing can be removed under £300.

Prerogative Court.—The Governor discharges the place of Ordinary in granting administration and proveing Wills, etc. The Secretary is Register. The Governor is about to appoint Delegates in the remoter parts of the Government, with supervisors for looking after intestate's estates and providing for orphans.

Minor criminal offenses were looked after by the Court of Sessions, and the more flagrant by the judges of the Supreme Court in their circuits through the counties. They had for this purpose "a commission of oyer and terminer and general jail delivery, in which some of the county judges were joined."

Smith, in his "History of New York," gives an interesting account of the courts as they were in 1757:

Justices of the Peace are appointed by commission from the Governors, who, to serve their purposes in elections, sometimes grant, as it is called, the administration to particular favorites in each county, which is the nomination of officers civil and military; and by these means justices have been astonishingly multiplied. There are instances of some of those who can neither write nor read. These Genii, besides their ordinary powers, are by acts of assembly enabled to hold courts for the determination of small causes of 5 pounds and under; but the parties are privileged, if they choose, it, with a jury; the proceedings are in a summary way, and the conduct of the justices has given just cause to innumerable complaints. The justices have also jurisdiction with crimes under the degree of grand larceny; for any three of them (one being of the quorum) may try the criminal without a jury, and inflict punishments not extending to life or limb.

The Sessions and Court of Common Pleas.—The Court of Common Pleas takes cognizance of all causes where the matter in demand is in value above 5 pounds. It is established by ordinance of the Governor in Council. The judges are ordinarily three, and hold their office during pleasure. Thro' the infancy of the country, few, if any of them, are acquainted with the law. The practice of these

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courts is similar to that of the common bench at Westminster. They have each a clerk, commissioned by the Governor, who issues their writs, enters their minutes and keeps the records of the country. They are held twice every year. These judges, together with some of the justices, hold at the same time a court of general sessions of the peace.

Supreme Court.—The judges of this court, according to the act of the Assembly, are judges of Nisi Prius, of course, and agreeably to an ordinance of the Governor and Council, perform a circuit through the counties once every year. They carry with them at the same time a commission of oyer and terminer and general jail delivery, in which some of the county justices are joined. They have but two clerks: one attendant upon the Supreme Court at New York and the other on the circuits.

From these accounts and other sources we gain some idea of the judicial system of the county during colonial times. Under the Duke's Laws there existed a Court of Sessions with both civil and criminal jurisdiction, held three times a year by the resident justices of the peace and the Town Court, held by the constable and at least five overseers of towns. The latter court had both legislative and judicial functions, while the former exercised some of the functions of the supervisors. From 1683 to 1691 we have the Court of Oyer and Terminer, with civil, criminal and appellate jurisdiction, held by one judge and three resident justices of the peace; a Court of Sessions, with civil and criminal jurisdiction and power to audit and levy the county and town charges, held twice each year; and a Town Court, held by three commissioners. From 1691 to 1776 there were Circuit Courts held annually by one of the Supreme Court justices, who had a commission of Oyer and Terminer, in which some of the county judges were associated; the Court of Common Pleas, composed of one judge and two or more justices of the peace, which took cognizance of all actions, real, personal, and mixed, where the matter in demand exceeded the sum of five pounds in value; the Court of Sessions, whose jurisdiction was now confined to criminal cases; the Justices' Court in the various towns. The people had comparatively little voice in their own government. The judges of the various courts, justices of the peace, sheriff, county clerk, surrogate, and in fact all officers except the town officers, such as supervisors, collectors, assessors and constables, were appointed by the Governor, who was responsible only to the king of England. Most of the officers thus appointed held office during the pleasure of the Governor. This condition of affairs produced satisfaction among the people, and led to an almost perpetual conflict between the government and the General Assembly. The elective officers were the overseers, supervisors, collectors, assessors and constables of the town, the mayor, aldermen, and Common Council of the town, or borough of Westchester, which had a special charter, and representatives in the General Assembly.

Changes by Popular Rule—When New York ceased to be under the British government and became an independent State, great and radical changes in principle were made. However, the machinery of government was not greatly changed. The source of authority was changed, not its expression. The Constitution of 1777 substituted for a Governor appointed by the king of England one elected by the people; the Council appointed by the king or Governor became a Senate, elected by the people; and the General Assembly elected by the people remained. The apportionment in both branches of the Legislature was according to population—a principle not previously recognized. The number of elective officers remained the same, but the appointing power was vested in the Council of Appointment, presided over by the Governor, who had a casting vote, consisting of one Senator elected annually by the Assembly from each of the four senatorial districts. A Governor and Council holding office at the pleasure of the king gave place to a Governor and a Council elected by the people for a limited term, and thus became directly amenable to them. The elective franchise in principle remained the same, with the single exception that there was no discrimination on account of religion. The property qualification was still retained. The judicial system remained largely the same. The common and statute law of Great Britain and the acts of the colonial General Assembly, except insofar as they conflicted with the new order of things, were made the law of the State until modified by the Legislature. The radical change was in the constitution of the court of final resort. Under the colonial system the government and council were the court for the correction of errors and appeals, from whom appeals, where the value exceeded five hundred pounds, or where the Episcopal Church was involved, lay to the king in Privy Council. Under the first constitution the executive had no political functions; the court of final resort was called the Court for the Trial of Impeachments and Correction of Errors, consisting of the Lieutenant-Governor, Senate, chancellor and judges of the Supreme Court. One other important change was made. In England the granting of probates was a royal prerogative and in the colony was vested in the king's representative, the Governor. The Governor of the State was stripped of this authority, which was granted to the surrogates of the counties and the Court of Probate. With these exceptions the colonial courts were recognized and we have the Court of Chancery with equity powers, the Supreme Court, Court of Common Pleas, Court of Sessions, and the Justices' Courts. Their powers remained substantially the same. The Supreme Court justices held Circuit Courts and Courts of Oyer and Terminer in each of the counties. In the latter two or more judges of the Common Pleas were associated.

The Constitution of 1821 extended the elective franchise by virtually

removing the property qualification, except in the case of colored persons, who were to be freeholders of two hundred and fifty dollars, and taxpayers. The appointing power was vested in the Governor with the advice and consent of the Senate. The offices of sheriff and county clerk became elective, the term of service being three years. The justices of the peace were to be appointed by the supervisors and judges of the County Court. The courts in name remained the same, but the constitution of the Supreme Court was somewhat changed and a Circuit Court was added. "The Supreme Court sat four times a year in review of their decisions and for the determination of questions of law. Each justice was empowered to hold circuit courts and any justice of the Supreme Court could likewise preside at the Oyer and Terminer." The constitution provided that the State should be divided into not fewer than four nor more than eight circuits. Each district had its circuit judge, who possessed the powers of a justice of the Supreme Court at chambers, in the trial of issues joined in the Supreme Court, and in the Court of Oyer and Terminer. The Courts of Common Pleas and Sessions and Justices' Courts were continued. Prior to the adoption of this constitution most offices were held either during good behavior or at the pleasure of the appointing power. The judges of the Court of Common Pleas were appointed for the term of five years, and the surrogates for four years. In 1823 the Court of Probates disappears, and appeals from the surrogates lay to the chancellor. The justices of the peace became elective in 1826.

The Constitution of 1846 extended the franchise to every resident white male citizen who was twenty-one years of age. The XV Amendment to the Constitution of the United States erased the word "white." All judicial offices of the State, all county offices and almost all civil offices in the gift of the State became elective. The Court for Final Impeachment and the Correction of Errors disappears. A new Court of Appeals is established, the constitution of which was somewhat modified by the amendment of 1866. A new Supreme Court was erected, vested with the powers hitherto possessed by the Supreme Court, the Court of Chancery and the Circuit Court. The County Court took the place of the Common Pleas and the county judge, with two justices of the peace, holds the Court of Sessions. The jurisdiction of the former was much greater than its predecessor. The county was made to form part of the Second Judicial District. The Supreme Court was to hold four terms and the County Court five each year at the courthouse at White Plains.

By the act of March 7, 1788, entitled "An act for defraying the necessary charges of the respective counties of the State," the region north of the Harlem River with all the county of Westchester was divided

into twenty towns, viz.: Bedford, Cortlandt, Eastchester, Greenburgh, Harrison, Mamaroneck, Mount Pleasant, New Rochelle, North Castle, North Salem, Pelham, Poundridge, Rye, Salem, Scarsdale, Stephentown, Westchester, White Plains, Yonkers and Yorktown. "The name of the town of Salem was changed to South Salem, April 6, 1806, and to Lewisboro, February 13, 1840, and a part of North Salem was annexed April 26, 1844. Ossining was formed from Mount Pleasant May 2, 1845. New Castle was formed from North Castle March 18, 1781, and a part of Somers annexed May 12, 1846. The name of Stephentown was changed to Somers April 6, 1808. West Farms was formed from Westchester May 13, 1846. Morrisania was formed from West Farms December 7, 1855. King's Bridge was formed from Yonkers December 16, 1872. By an act of the Legislature passed May 23, 1873, the towns of Morrisania, West Farms and King's Bridge were annexed to the county of New York, to take effect on the 1st day of January, 1874."

The history of the various assemblies and conventions of the colonial period is a very important part of the history of the struggle that ended in the independence of the colonies. It began in the conflict between the people and the director-general and council in the Dutch colonial period, in which the former claimed a voice in the government, and the "Twelve Selectmen" of 1641, "The Eight Men" of 1643 and 1645, and "The nine men" of 1647, 1649, 1650, and 1652, which necessity wrung from the latter, are really the later Assembly in embryo. Our interest begins with the English period, March 1, 1665, a convention met at the summons of Governor Nicolls, at Hempstead, Long Island, simply for the promulgation of the "Duke's Laws," which had been framed by the Governor under the authority of James, Duke of York and Albany. Westchester, later the borough and town of Westchester, was represented by Edward Jessup and John Quinby. The tyranny and the customs law of the Duke of York so exasperated the people, that the Duke, fearing lest the expenses of the colony should become a charge on his private purse, sent out Governor Dongan with authority to convene a General Assembly. He ordered, September 13, 1683, the election of an Assembly of fourteen representatives. The apportionment gave four to Westchester. Its first act was entitled "Charter of Liberties and Privileges granted by his Royal Highness to the inhabitants of New York and its dependencies." This act proves its authors worthy descendants of a liberty-loving ancestry, and worthy progenitors of the founders of American liberties. James had become king of England, and it is scarcely necessary to add that this charter received the royal disapproval, and the General Assembly was abolished, June 16, 1686. Westchester was represented in this assembly by

Thomas Hunt, Sr., Jno. Palmer, Richard Ponton, and William Richardson. At Leisler's Assembly, in 1690, Thomas Browne was the representative for Westchester. He died and a new writ of election was issued. Governor Sloughter arrived on March 19, 1691, with instructions from William and Mary to reëstablish the Assembly and reinstate the people in their rights. It consisted of seventeen members, but it was afterwards increased to twenty-seven. On April 9, 1691, it met for the first time. From this date until it ceased to exist on April 3, 1775, it was engaged in one prolonged conflict with the Governor and the crown for the rights of the people. By the act of May 8, 1699, the representatives were elected by the freeholders of forty pounds in value, who were residents of the electoral district at least three months prior to the issue of the writ. The elections were held by the sheriff at one place in each county, and voting was *viva voce*. The act of November 25, 1751, directed the sheriff to hold his court of election near the Presbyterian meeting-house at White Plains. Previously it had been held in the southern part of the county, doubtless at Westchester. Catholics could neither vote nor hold office, and at one time the Quakers and Moravians were also virtually disqualified by their unwillingness to take the oath.

The General Assembly legally dates from 1691, with which date the compilers of the colonial laws were directed to commence. In the first eight assemblies the county of Westchester was represented. By the royal charter of April 6, 1696, the borough of Westchester was established, and the freeholders were empowered to choose a mayor, six aldermen, and six assistants or Common Council for the government of the borough; also one discreet burgess to every General Assembly. Later the borough of Westchester was represented from the Ninth Assembly. The manor of Cortlandt was also entitled by its charter, dated June 17, 1697, to one representative after twenty years had elapsed. The General Assembly recognized this right on June 11, 1734, and Philip Yerplanck took his seat on June 22 following. From that date what are now the region of The Bronx and Westchester County in general, had three representatives.

"On the day appointed for the meeting of a new Legislature," says the Civil List, "the members-elect convened at the Assembly Chamber in the City of New York, and if they were above thirteen in number, sent the Clerk of the House to inform the Governor of their attendance. Commissioners, generally, the Judges of the Supreme Court, were sent to the Assembly Chamber to qualify them, after which their presence was required before his Excellency who requested them to return to their Chamber and elect a Speaker. For that purpose they again retired, and having made a choice, conducted the person elected

to the Chair, which was placed at the upper end of the long table. He subsequently presented himself, accompanied by the members, to the Governor, for his approval, which was of course granted. The Speaker thereupon addressed the Governor, and in behalf of the House, prayed 'that their words and actions may have a favorable construction; that the members may have free access to him, and they and their servants be privileged with freedom from arrests.' The Governor having granted this request opened the session by reading the speech to both Houses, a copy whereof was delivered to the Speaker of the Assembly. Messages to the Council were conveyed by one of the members of the House, who was met at the bar of the Council by the Speaker of that body, into whose hands the message was delivered. All money bills originated in the Assembly, which, according to the practice of the House of Commons, allowed no amendment to be made thereto by the Council. Both Houses were present in the Council Chamber when the Governor passed the bills sent him, on which occasion the custom was for his Excellency to ask the advice of his Council with respect to every bill. If approved, he signed them after these words, 'I assent to this bill, enacting the same, and order it to be enrolled.' The acts were thereupon published in the open street, near the City Hall, New York, in the presence of the Governor and both branches of the Legislature. All laws passed were subject, subsequently, to an absolute veto of the King."

Of the members of the Colonial Assembly from the region of The Bronx and from Westchester County generally Adolph Philipse and Lewis Morris, Jr., were elected Speakers. There were thirty-one Assemblies-terms of service from two months to ten years. The compensation of the representatives from Westchester County and the manor of Cortlandt was six shillings a day; that of the representative of the borough of Westchester, ten shillings. These allowances were paid by their constituents.

The Provincial Convention of April 20, 1775, was summoned by the Committee of Sixty, because the General Assembly refused to comply with the recommendation of the Continental Congress to choose delegates to the Continental Congress. The Westchester County elected:

Samuel Drake; Jonathan Platt; Robert Graham; John Thomas, Jr.; James Holmes; Philip Van Cortlandt; Lewis Morris; and Stephen Ward.

The last session of the Colonial Assembly was held April 3, 1775. These conventions were four in number. The first Provincial Convention met May 22, 1775. The apportionment varied. Some of the members were elected for one year, others for six months. The vote was taken by counties. The First, Second, and Third Congresses

met in New York, while the Fourth was migratory-meeting at White Plains, Fishkill and Kingston. The deputies were chosen from the counties in the same manner as representatives to the Colonial Assembly. The deputies from Westchester County were:

David Dayton; Gilbert Drake; Joseph Drake; Peter Fleming; Lewis Graham; Robert Graham; Samuel Haviland; James Holmes; Ebenezer Lockwood; Zebadiah Mills; Gouverneur Morris; Lewis Morris; William Paulding; Jonathan Platt; Benjamin Smith; John Thomas, Jr.; Jonathan G. Tompkins; Philip Van Cortlandt; Pierre Van Cortlandt; Stephen Ward.

During the recesses of the congresses a Committee of Safety from its members was entrusted with executive functions. After the formation of the Constitution of 1777, a temporary form of government, called the Council of Safety, was appointed until the Governor and Legislature should be elected. In this council the members from the region of The Bronx and Westchester County were: Gouverneur Morris; Jonathan G. Tompkins; and Pierre Van Cortlandt; the last being the presiding officer.

Delegates and State Constitution—The Fourth Provincial Congress, which assumed the name of the Convention of Representatives of the State of New York, resolved itself into a convention to frame a constitution for the State. On August 1, 1776, a committee of thirteen members was appointed to prepare a form of government. The committee reported on March 12, 1777, and the first constitution was adopted on April 20, following. It is saturated with the principles for which the people had contended for more than a century. The three distinct functions of government were recognized. A Legislature, consisting of a Senate and Assembly, was the law-making body. The executive officer was called the Governor. The appointing power was vested in a Council of Appointment, which consisted of one Senator from each of the four senatorial districts. These members of the Council were appointed annually by the Assembly. The Governor, who presided over the Council of Appointment, was to have a "casting voice, but no other vote." The elective officers were: Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Senators, Assemblymen, and the clerks, supervisors, constables and collectors of the several towns. All other officers—civil and military—were appointed by the Council of Appointment. Male resident owners of freeholds of one hundred pounds' value elected the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and Senators; while owners of freeholds of twenty pounds in value, etc., were entitled to vote for Assemblymen.

The Second Convention convened in Poughkeepsie on June 17, 1788, pursuant to an act of Legislature, to consider the Federal Constitution. On July 26, the convention ratified it by a vote of thirty to twenty-seven,

seven not voting. The following were the delegates from the region of The Bronx and Westchester County, all of whom showed their good sense by voting to ratify the new instrument: Thaddeus Crane; Lewis Morris; Richard Hatfield; Lott W. Sarls; Philip Livingston; Philip Van Cortlandt.

The Third Convention was that of 1801, which was held at Albany, October 13th, to 27th, pursuant to an act passed on April 6 of that year, to settle the controversy which had arisen regarding the relative powers of the Governor and Council of Appointment respecting nominations for office, and to consider the expediency of altering the Constitution in regard to the number of Senators and Assemblymen, with power to reduce and limit the same. The Convention unanimously decided that the Council of Appointment had equal powers of nomination with the Governor; fixed the number of Senators at thirty-two, and the Assemblymen at one hundred, to be increased after each census, at the rate of two yearly, until they reached the number of one hundred and fifty. The delegates from the region of The Bronx and Westchester County in general were: Thomas Ferris; Israel Honeywell; Jonathan G. Tompkins; Pierre Van Cortlandt, Jr.; and Ebenezer White.

The Fourth Convention was held in Albany during the period from August 28 to November 10, 1821. The question of a Convention for the Revision of the Constitution was submitted to the people, and was carried by a very large majority. The burning questions of the day were about the Councils of Revision and Appointment. The former was objected to as exercising the veto power contrary to the ideas for which the colonists contended, and as being beyond the reach of the people; and the latter, because it had assumed judicial authority. The Constitution of 1821 was ratified by the people in February, 1822. The vote was put into the hands of all white male citizens, virtually without condition. The Councils of Revision and Appointment were abolished. Appointments, for the most part, were made by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The number of elective officers was increased. The delegates at the Convention from the region of The Bronx and from Westchester County in general, were: Peter A. Jay, who did not sign the constitution; Peter J. Munro; and Jonathan Ward.

The Fifth Convention met, pursuant to the vote of the people and an act of the Legislature, at Albany, on June 1, 1846, and continued in session until October 9th of the same year. The new constitution was ratified by the popular vote on November 3, 1846. Judicial offices were made elective. Members of Assembly in each county had been hitherto elected on a general ticket. The third Constitution of 1846 directed the Boards of Supervisors to divide their counties into Assembly

STATUE OF LOUIS J. HEINTZ

258TH FIELD ARTILLERY ARMORY KINGSBRIDGE ROAD AND JEROME AVENUE

Districts. The delegates from the region of The Bronx and from Westchester County in general at this Fifth Convention, were: John Hunter, who did not sign the engrossed constitution; and Aaron Ward.

The Sixth Convention, convened in the same manner as the preceding, met in the Assembly Chamber in Albany, on June 4, 1867, and adjourned, *sine die*, on February 28, 1868. It consisted of thirty-two delegates-at-large and four from each Senatorial District. Only the judiciary article was ratified. The delegates from the Ninth Senatorial District, including the region of The Bronx, were: Robert Cochran; Abraham B. Conger; William H. Morris; and Abraham B. Tappan.

There was a later Constitutional Commission. The Governor was empowered, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to appoint thirty-two persons, four from each judicial district, as a commission to frame into amendments several provisions contained in the rejected Constitution of 1867. The commission began its work in Albany on December 4, 1872, and completed it March 15, 1873. Most of the amendments proposed were submitted to and ratified by the people. The members of the Commission of the Second Judicial District, including the region of The Bronx, were: John J. Armstrong; Odle Close; Erastus Brooks; and Benjamin D. Silliman.

The Legislature of the State of New York was made to consist of the Senate and the Assembly, the members of both bodies being elected by the people. *Viva voce* voting was done away with by the act of February 13, 1787, and since that time the ballot has been used in elections.

Under the Constitution of 1777, the Senate consisted of twenty-four members, apportioned among the four districts, which bore the designations Southern, Middle, Eastern and Western. The Convention of 1801 increased the number of Senators to thirty-two, and the State was divided into eight districts. After the adoption of the Constitution of 1846, there were thirty-two districts, each entitled to one member. The term of office was made two years. Under the Constitution of 1777 it was four. Westchester County has belonged successively to the Southern, First, Seventh, Eighth, Ninth, and Twelfth.

With regard to the Assembly, it originally consisted of seventy members. The Constitution of 1821 fixed the number permanently at one hundred and twenty-eight. Prior to the adoption of the Constitution of 1846, all the members of the Assembly were elected on a general ticket. After that the counties were divided into districts. The representation from Westchester County varied from six in 1777 to two in 1836.

Local Representatives in Congress—The residents of the region of The Bronx and of Westchester County generally in the Continental

Congress were chosen originally by the Provincial Congress. The Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union adopted by the Continental Congress, November 15, 1777, directed the appointment annually of delegates by the State Legislatures. The number from each State was not to be fewer than two or more than seven. New York State usually sent five, occasionally six. The votes in Congress were by States. Members of the Continental Congress who were residents of the region of The Bronx and Westchester County in general were: Gouverneur Morris, who was in the Congress during 1777 and 1778; Lewis Morris, who was in Congress during 1775; and Philip Pell, who was in Congress during the year 1788.

In regard to the residents of the valley of The Bronx and of Westchester County generally who have represented their districts in Congress, it is to be noted that the county originally was divided; the northern tier of towns formed, with Dutchess County, one district, while the remainder was, with New York, in another. Later it formed with Richmond a district. After that it was in the Third, Fourth, Seventh, Ninth, Tenth, and Twelfth districts. The term of office was made two years. Some of the early representatives in Congress from the region of The Bronx and Westchester County in general, were: Joseph H. Anderson; Joel Frost; John B. Haskin; William Nelson; N. Holmes Odell; Jarel V. Peck; Clarkson N. Potter; William Radford; William H. Robertson; Caleb Tompkins; Philip Van Cortlandt; Pierre Van Cortlandt, Jr.; Aaron Wood; and Jonathan Ward.

Appointment of Judges—With regard to Colonial Supreme Court justices, the appointment was vested in the Governor; and the term of office was at his pleasure. Among the early Supreme Court justices were: Joseph Dudley; William Smith; Stephen Van Cortlandt; Abraham De Peyster; William Atwood; William Smith; John Bridges; Roger Mompesson; Lewis Morris; James De Lancey; Benjamin Pratt; and Daniel Horsemanden.

Associate and Puisne justices of the Colonial Supreme Court included: Thomas Johnson; William Smith; Stephen Van Cortlandt; William Pinhorne; Chidley Brooke; John Lawrence; John Guest; Abraham De Peyster; Robert Waltons; John Bridges; Robert Milward; Thomas Wenham; James De Lancey; Frederick Philipse; Daniel Horsemanden; John Chambers; David Jones; William Smith, Sen.; Robert R. Livingston; George D. Ludlow; Thomas Jones; and Whitehead Hicks.

With regard to the State Supreme Court, under the Constitution of 1777, appointment was vested in the Council of Appointment, and the term was during good behavior or until sixty years of age. Under the Constitution of 1821, the Governor appointed the justices with the

advice and consent of the Senate. The term remained the same. The Constitution of 1846 made the office elective and the term eight years. The amendment to the judiciary article adopted in November, 1869, lengthened the term to fourteen years. Chief justices of the State Supreme Court included: John Jay; Richard Morris; Robert Yates; John Lansing, Jr.; Morgan Lewis; James Kent; Smith Thompson; Ambrose Spencer; John Savage; Samuel Nelson; Greene C. Bronson; and Samuel Beardsley.

Associate or Puisne justices of the State Supreme Court included: Robert Yates; John Sloss Hobart; John Lansing, Jr.; Morgan Lewis; Egbert Benson; James Kent; John Cozine; Jacob Radcliff; Brockholst Livingston; Smith Thompson; Ambrose Spencer; Daniel D. Tompkins; William W. Van Ness; Joseph C. Yates; Jonas Platt; John Woolworth; Jacob Sunderland; William L. Marcy; Samuel Nelson; Greene C. Bronson; Esek Cowen; Samuel Beardsley; Freeborn G. Jewett; Frederick Whittlesey; Thomas McKissock.

Circuit judges of the Second Circuit included: Samuel R. Betts; James Emott; Charles H. Huggins; Selah B. Strong; and Seward Barculo.

Justices of the Supreme Court of the Second District included: Selah B. Strong; William T. McCown; Nathan B. Morse; Seward Barculo; John W. Brown; William Rockwell; Gilbert Dean; James Emott; Lucien Birdseye; John A. Lott; William W. Scrugham; William Fullerton; Stephen W. Fullerton; Joseph F. Barnard; Jasper W. Gilbert; Abraham B. Tappan; Calvin E. Pratt; and Jackson O. Dykeman.

With regard to the county judges, the Court of Common Pleas was erected by the act of 1691. It was composed of one judge and three justices, who were appointed by the Governor and held office during his pleasure. In 1702, the judge was assisted by two or more justices. Under the first Constitution there was one judge and several assistant judges. The act of March 27, 1818, abolished the office of assistant judge and limited the number of judges to five. Under the State government, the appointment was at first vested in the Council of Appointment, and the office was held during their pleasure. Later, the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Senate, appointed the county judges, and the term was five years. The Constitution of 1846 made the office elective and the term four years. The amendment of 1869 extended it to six years. Judges of the Court of Common Pleas and County Court in colonial days from the region of The Bronx and Westchester County in general included: Caleb Heathcote; William Willett; Frederick Philipse; Samuel Purdy; and John Thomas.

Under the State Constitution of 1777 and 1821, the judges included: Lewis Morris, who was appointed by ordinance of the Provincial Con-

vention; Robert Graham; Stephen Ward; Ebenezer Lockwood; Jonathan G. Tompkins; Ebenezer Purdy; Elijah Lee; John Watts; Caleb Tompkins; William Jay; Robert S. Hart.

Under the Constitution of 1846, the judges included: John W. Mills; William H. Robertson; Robert Cochran; Silas D. Gifford; and Isaac N. Mills.

With regard to surrogates, the authority to grant probates was vested in the Governor as the representative of the king, and he was the ordinary of the Prerogative Court. All wills relating to estates in New York, Orange, Richmond, Westchester, and Kings counties were to be proved in New York. In the towns under the Duke's Laws the constables, overseers and justices took charge of the estates of intestates. Under the act of November 11, 1692, this duty was performed by two freeholders appointed or elected for the purpose. Surrogates were appointed by the colonial Governor at a very early date—for Westchester County as early as 1730. They had very limited powers. After the organization of the State the surrogates were invested with the authority to grant probates, subject to appeal to the Court of Probates. Counties where the population exceeded forty thousand, it was agreed, might be authorized by the Legislature to elect such an officer. Otherwise the county judge was to act as such. The office was filled by appointment of the Council of Appointment; later by the Governor and Senate. Under the Constitution of 1846 it became elective. The term was at first during the pleasure of the appointing power. From 1821 to 1846 the surrogates were appointed for four years. After the office became elective, the term was six years. Surrogates in colonial times for the region of The Bronx and for Westchester County in general were: Gilbert White, appointed in 1730; John Barton, appointed on February 9, 1754; Caleb Fowler, appointed June 10, 1761; and David Daton, appointed on June 9, 1766. The following were the surrogates of the region of The Bronx and of Westchester County generally under the constitutions of 1777 and 1821; Richard Hatfield; Philip Pell, Jr.; Samuel Youngs; Edward Thomas; Ezra Lockwood; Henry White; Ebenezer White; Jonathan Ward; Alexander H. Wells; Frederick J. Coffin.

Attorneys, Sheriffs, Clerks—As to district attorneys, by the act of February 12, 1796, the State was divided into seven districts, each of which had an attorney, called assistant attorney-general. The Assistant Attorney-General became in 1801, district attorney. By the act of April, 1818, each county became a district, and had its own district attorney. Under the Constitution of 1777 the Council of Appointment filled the office during pleasure; that of 1821 vested the appointment in the Court of Sessions, while later the office was made elective. The

district attorneys for the First District—including Kings, Queens, Richmond, Suffolk, and Westchester counties—under the act of 1796 were Nathaniel Lawrence and Cadwallader D. Colden. The district attorneys under the act of 1801 included: Richard Riker, Cadwallader D. Colden, Barent Gardenier, and Thomas S. Lester. District attorneys under the act of 1818 included: Robert P. Lee, Aaron Ward, William Nelson, Richard R. Voris, William W. Scrugham, Edward Wells, William H. Pemberton, Pelham L. McClellan, John S. Bates, Jackson O. Dykeman, Daniel C. Briggs, Robert Cochran, and Nelson H. Baker.

With regard to sheriffs, during the colonial period these officials were appointed annually by the Governor, usually in the month of October. The Constitution of 1777 vested the appointment in the Council of Appointment. The term was one year, and no person could hold the office for more than four successive years. The Constitution of 1821 made the office elective and the term three years. In the colonial period the sheriffs included: William Wells, Robert Coe, John Manning, Sylvester Salisbury, Philip Wells, Thomas Willett, Richard Betts, and John Young. After the formation of the county the sheriffs were: Benjamin Collier, Thomas Statham, John Shute, Edmund Ward, Jeremiah Fowler, Isaac Dunham, Roger Barton, Israel Honeywell, Jr., Gilbert Willett, Jacobus Van Dyck, Nicholas Cooper, Lewis Graham, John De Lancey, James De Lancey. Under the Constitution of 1777 the sheriffs were: John Thomas, Jr., John Thomas, Jesse Hunt, Philip Pell, Thomas Thomas, Samuel Haight, Elias Newman, William Barker, Jonathan Ward, Daniel Delevan, Joseph Hatfield, St. John Constant, Elijah Ward, Lyman Cook, Zabud June, Ward B. Howard.

With regard to the County Clerks the "Civil List of the State of New York" remarks: "The County Clerk, during the colonial period, was constituted by his commission clerk of the Court of Common Pleas, Clerk of the Peace and Clerk of the Sessions of the Peace in his county. Under the first State Constitution, it was his duty to keep the County Records and act as Clerk of the Inferior Court of Common Pleas and Clerk of the Oyer and Terminer. County Clerks are now likewise Clerks of the Supreme Court in their respective counties." During the colonial period appointment was vested in the Governor; under the first Constitution of 1777, in the Council of Appointment. After that the office was made elective and the term three years. During the colonial period the County Clerks were: John Rider, Joseph Lee, Edward Collier, Benjamin Collier, John Clapp, Daniel Clark, William Forrester, Benjamin Nicoll, and John Bartow. The County Clerks under the State Constitution of 1777 were: John Bartow, Richard Hatfield, Thomas Ferris, Elijah Crawford, William Requa, and Nehemiah S. Bates.

With regard to the treasurers in the region of The Bronx and in Westchester County generally, during the colonial period the treasurers from 1701 to 1703 were elected by the Justices of the Peace in the Court of General or Special Sessions; from 1703 to 1846 by the supervisors. The Constitution of 1846 made the office elective and the term three years. The Boards of Supervisors were directed by the act of April 17, 1843, to appoint County superintendents of common schools. The office was abolished on March 13, 1847, after Samuel L. Holmes and John Hobb had been in office. With regard to school commissioners "prior to 1857 School Commissioners were appointed by the Boards of Supervisors. Since that year they have been elected on a separate ballot. The first election under the act creating the office was held in November, 1859. Term, three years."

Since the formation of The Bronx Borough under the Greater New York Charter of 1897, amended 1901, effective January 1, 1898, and January 1, 1902, respectively, the principal borough officials have been as follows:

Borough Presidents, elected for a four-year term: Louis F. Haffen, (1898-1909); John F. Murray, part of 1909; Cyrus C. Miller, (1910-1913); Douglas Matthewson, (1914-1917); Henry Bruckner, (1918-1929);

Consulting Engineers: During the presidency of Mr. Haffen, the Borough President was his own Consulting Engineer. Amos Schaeffer, (1910-1913); J. W. F. Bennett, (1914-1917); Louis F. Haffen, (1918—).

Commissioner of Public Works: Henry Bruckner, (1898-1905) Resigned; John F. Murray, (1905-1909); Thomas W. Whittle, (1910-1913); John R. Burgstede, (1914-1917); William J. Flynn, (1918—).

Chief Engineer: Josiah A. Briggs, Chief Engineer of Highways (1898-1901), Chief Engineer of Borough (1902-1910); Richard H. Gillespie, (1910-1917); Josiah H. Fitch, (1918—).

The Bronx County Administration at Present Time—Richard H. Mitchell, Supreme Court Justice; George V. Mullan, Supreme Court Justice; John M. Tierney, Supreme Court Justice; Leonard A. Giegerich, Supreme Court Justice; Peter A. Hatting, Supreme Court Justice; Louis D. Gibbs, Supreme Court Justice; Edward J. Glennon, Supreme Court Justice; Ernest E. L. Hammer, Supreme Court Justice; Joseph M. Callahan, Supreme Court Justice; John E. McGeehan, District Attorney; Albert Cohn, County Judge; James M. Barrett, County Judge; George M. S. Schultz, Surrogate; James W. Brown, Public Administrator; Lester W. Patterson, Sheriff; Louis A. Schoffel, Register; Robert L. Moran, County Clerk; John A. Mason, Commissioner of Jurors; John J. Knewitz, Commissioner of Records.

New York City Administration in The Bronx—Commissioner of

Parks, The Bronx, Joseph P. Hennessy; Deputy Commissioner, Department of Street Cleaning; Deputy Commissioner, Department of Water Supply.

Gas and Electricity: Superintendent, Tenement House Department; Department of Assessments and Arrears; Department of Public Welfare; Department of Taxes and Assessments; Board of Elections; Receiver of Taxes; Deputy City Clerk; Marriage License Bureau; Department of Health; Assistant Medical Examiners.

Board of Aldermen in The Bronx: Edward W. Curley, 25th District; Albert G. Halberstadt, 26th District; James M. Fitzpatrick, 27th District (Elected to Congress; term beginning March 4, 1927), (24th District); William P. Sullivan, 28th District; Peter Donovan, 29th District; Edward J. Walsh, 30th District; Rudolph Hannock, 31st District; Alfred J. Williams, 32nd District.

Justices of the Municipal Court in The Bronx: Peter A. Sheil; William E. Morris; James J. Fitzgerald; Ely Neumann.

State Administration in The Bronx—State Senators: Henry G. Schackno, 21st District; Benjamin Antin, 22nd District; John J. Dunnigan, 23rd District.

Members of Assembly: Nicholas J. Eberhard, 1st District; William F. Smith, 2nd District; Julius Berg, 3rd District; Herman M. Albert, 4th District; Harry A. Samberg, 5th District; Thomas J. McDonald, 6th District; John F. Reidy, 7th District; Joseph E. Kinsley, 8th District.

National Administration in The Bronx—Collector of Internal Revenue, 14th District. Representatives in Congress: Anthony J. Griffin, 22nd District; Frank Oliver, 23rd District; Benjamin L. Fairchild, 24th District. James M. Fitzpatrick, 1927.

Local Improvement Boards; Morrisania, 21st District—25th Aldermanic District; Chester, 22nd District—26th and 27th Aldermanic Districts; Crotona, 23rd District—28th and 29th Aldermanic Districts; Van Cortlandt, 24th District—30th, 31st, and 32nd Aldermanic Districts. The Secretary of the Borough of The Bronx is Secretary of all the Local Boards.

Present Borough and City Officials—Henry Bruckner, President of the Borough of The Bronx; Thomas J. Dolen, Secretary to Borough President; Solomon Boneparth, Secretary Borough of The Bronx; William J. Flynn, Commissioner of Public Works; Arthur J. Largy, Superintendent Bureau of Highways; Patrick J. Reville, Superintendent Bureau of Buildings; George T. Brown, Superintendent Bureau of Public Buildings; Josiah H. Fitch, Chief Engineer, Engineering Bureau; Louis F. Haffen, Consulting Engineer; Joseph P. Hennessy, Commis-

sioner of Parks; James W. Brown, Deputy Commissioner, Street Cleaning Department; Albert H. Liebenau, Deputy Commissioner, Water Supply, Gas and Electricity Department; Walter Martin, Superintendent Tenement House Department; Dr. Karl S. Kennard, Assistant Medical Examiner; Dr. John Riegelman, Assistant Medical Examiner.

The part of The Bronx community annexed to the City and County of New York on January 1, 1874, was designated as the 23rd and 24th Wards, and the development of the territory was placed under the jurisdiction of the Department of Public Parks of New York City, which body had succeeded the Central Park Commissioners.

At the time of annexation the population of the 23rd and 24th Wards was about 35,000, and a speedy development of this territory was anticipated, but was not realized. The new part of the city of New York was looked upon as a mere suburban locality, more to be tolerated than recognized as a part of the City.

Finally, after many years of dissatisfaction over the administration or rather the lack of it by the Park Department, property owners in the 23rd and 24th Wards joined activities in behalf of a local bureau or department that would prove more beneficial to them as well as to the City at large.

In 1890, the campaign bore fruit with the Governor's approval of a Legislative Bill creating the Department of Street Improvements of the 23rd and 24th Wards, transferring to the new body the jurisdiction over the improvement of this territory up to that time reposing in the Park Department.

The new Department of Street Improvements became a functioning body on January 1, 1891, with Louis J. Heintz as the first Commissioner of the Department.

By virtue of Chapter 378 of the Laws of 1897, the territories embraced within the annexations to the City and County of New York in 1874 and 1895 became the Borough of The Bronx, on January 1, 1898, and the Department of Street Improvements ceased to exist as an independent body, being merged with the Borough government.

Louis F. Haffen had the honor of being the first President of the Borough of The Bronx.

On January 1, 1914, by virtue of Chapter 548 of the Laws of 1912, Bronx County came into being, the first group of County officials, who had been elected at the November, 1913, election, taking office.

We shall end this chapter on a personal note. Mr. Louis F. Haffen's name occurs frequently in the modern chapters of this work. He was the first President of the Borough of The Bronx and remained its president twelve years. He has been continuously in the public service of the borough since its formation and has indeed been one of its

BRONX BIRDSEYE VIEW

BRONX BIRDSEYE VIEW

architects during the period of striking development in which the present generation has lived. It will perhaps not be out of place to put on record the appreciation of the contemporaries who have been his continued supporters. The tribute from them is not merely a tribute to him but a tribute also to others and a succinct account of political events that preceded the date of writing. For these reasons we think, though written some years ago, it will form a fitting conclusion to a chapter dealing with the activities of officials, of whom the man addressed and some of the signers are still the modern successors. The letter is in the form of an appeal asking Mr. Haffen to run again as candidate for the presidency and is in part as follows:

Your predecessor in the office of Commissioner of Street Improvements, the late Louis J. Heintz, made rapid and skillful progress in the making and filing of maps and when, after about two years of public service, death closed his career, you were called upon to take up the work and you have guided its progress and prosperity ever since. To Louis J. Heintz is due the affection and gratitude of the people, no one being more generous in praise of him than yourself. To you, who have since his death conducted our public affairs in their enormously enlarged proportions, is due the confidence and respect of every unbiased citizen of our Borough. Under both of these administrations our Borough has far outstripped in proportionate increase of population and material prosperity any other Borough of our great city. Nor should we omit to say that it ought to be a source of great pride and gratification to all our citizens of The Bronx, that, with the vast volume of public business conducted, the great extent and variety of public improvements and the large expenditure of public funds since 1890, a period of fifteen years, no charge of corruption or no scandal worthy of the name against either of these administrations has ever assailed the public ear.

Viewing the matter as a purely economic question, free from all other entanglements, it is quite clear to us that there is still a large volume of unfinished business which can be best completed by you.

A new territory of 15,000 acres, larger in dimensions than the original territory under your jurisdiction when you first took office, has been added to the Borough. The layout and final mapping of this component part of the Borough is not yet completed. It is clearly advisable that there should be a symmetrical and consistent system throughout. A change of administration at this particular juncture might involve a change of treatment and policy.

There is still another most important reason for your continuance in office for another term. The Bronx Borough has water front of about sixty miles. This vast property is of incalculable value to the future growth and wealth not only of The Bronx but of the City. To lay the fundamental plans scientifically and judiciously for its future uses to meet the requirements of a large and ever increasing population and correspondingly increasing business, is a problem of the gravest importance.

Your skill as an engineer, added to your intimate and practical knowledge, acquired through years of professional and official observation, render your services in determining the time and manner of its development of vital importance to the people of The Bronx.

Believing it to be incumbent upon you, under all these circumstances, not to evade the responsibility, we earnestly request you, in the interest of property

owners, business men and the general welfare, to serve us for another term as President of the Borough of The Bronx.

Respectfully,

John H. Knoeppel,	Wm. H. Schott,
Matthew P. Breen,	John Haffen,
Wm. G. McCrea,	R. D. Hamilton,
John McMahon,	John H. J. Ronner,
Arthur C. Butts,	John C. Heintz,
Gustavus Robitzek,	Louis A. Risse,
Bernard R. Guion,	William Ebling,
John Osborn,	Adolph G. Hupfel.

CHAPTER X

CIVIL WAR

The Civil War did not come suddenly, like a bolt from the blue. It drew near slowly, propelled by those wavering human forces that exist in the pride and passion of men. It was preceded by a period of acerbation, of feeling which every now and again threatened to run over the brink and carry the nation onward to a doom of which not the clearest-seeing of minds could foretell the outcome. It was preceded by innumerable outbursts of passion on the part of individual partisans and the growing of a deep hatred that dug a chasm through the heart of the country and divided it into two formidable sections. The time came when the feeling grew so tense that men began to visualize the outbreak of war as a relief, and when that state of feeling prevails men in their hearts know well that the inevitable is at their doors. From the day when the votes were counted, after the famous election of 1860, the question of Civil War was reduced to one of time. The party that then came into power affected to believe that it would not come; but its adversaries steadily predicted its occurrence, or confined themselves to the expression of a hope, against probability, that "the evil might be spared the nation." The region of The Bronx and Westchester County in general, from their position close to the metropolis of American commerce, might be expected to take in part a commercial view of the crisis. The distribution of parties within its limits was similar to the divisions in the city of New York, and the issue between the supporters of opposite views of the government was strongly marked. As in New York the three factions into which the one party was divided, sank their issue in a common electoral ticket, whose expressed bond of union was hatred to the "Black Republicans" and "Abolitionists" as a class. The leading papers of the territory just north of the Harlem were the "Eastern State Journal" of White Plains, the "Highland Democrat" of Peekskill, and the "Yonkers Herald." All three journals were well established, marked by vigorous writing, well able to support their editors. The attitude of parties in the valley of The Bronx and in Westchester County generally is best exhibited by the way in which these papers treated the question on the eve of election and immediately afterwards. The headlines of the "Eastern State Journal," which may be taken as a fair specimen of the whole, in which the tickets were printed on November 2nd—the Friday before Election Day—read thus:

Union Electoral Ticket, Anti-Lincoln, Anti-Black Republican.

No President is named. There are thirty-three electors and W. Kelly is named for Governor. The editorial on the subject says: "This is the day on which the fate of battle is suspended. Let every true man do his duty. . . . Be at the polls early. . . . Vote before breakfast if possible. Permit no Black Republican enemy of his country to deprive you of a sacred right, or swerve you from your purpose. Challenge every illegal vote. Permit no insolent, paid and drilled Wide Awakes to dictate the law or your duty. . . . Stand firm and defiant—and get in every vote possible for the Union Ticket."

Further on, and scattered through the paper, are statements that the "Black Republicans are panic-struck;" adjurations to "bring every man to the polls;" "to vote against the negro and Black Republican ticket, next Tuesday." "Cast your vote against Negro Suffrage. Be true," etc. The result of these appeals came out two weeks later in the official canvass of the vote: "Union Electoral" ticket, eight thousand, one hundred and twenty-six; "Republican" ticket, six thousand, six hundred and seventy-one. The majority of one thousand, four hundred and fifty-five cast against the latter ticket was not sustained in other cases, the majority for Kelly for Governor being about a thousand, while that for the Congressman was only six hundred and fifty. The neighboring counties of Putnam and Rockland show about the same state of parties.

A typical expression of opinion on the result of the election after an admission that the country districts had carried the State for the Republicans by "about six thousand majority," is as follows: "The result is deeply to be regretted, not so much on party ground, as for the continued peace and prosperity of the country. . . . The election of a sectional President—against which Washington warned his countrymen in his farewell address—has now been tried, and we are to witness the result. We hope for the best, yet we are not without serious apprehensions. . . . The Union Electoral ticket gets about thirteen hundred majority, but the State is black enough. New York City gives the Union Electoral ticket 28,000 majority."

Secession and Abolitionism—The feeling of pessimism was deep-seated and the assemblage of portents appeared to speak eloquently of the arduous times ahead. From that time forward the more thoughtful of the papers and publicists give expression to the sense of impending tragedy. The tone is grave, but not many comments are made till the assembling of Congress, when President Buchanan's message is praised as being "an able, statesmanlike and patriotic production," and the rest of the State Journal up to March 4, 1861, is occupied with copies of letters from prominent Southerners in advocacy of secession, including the "farewell" of Howell Cobb, in which he alludes to Mr. Buchanan as the "last President of the United States." The points of Buchanan's

message, briefly stated, were—that the Union was in peril; that there was no similarity between the attitude of South Carolina in the nullification of 1832 and her secession of December 20, 1860; because, in 1832, the sympathy of the other States was against her; while, in 1860, that of the Gulf States was with her; that the trouble had arisen in consequence of the Northern States interfering with slavery—a thing they had "no more right to meddle with in other States than in Russia;" that the question had arisen, What was to be done? that he was of opinion that secession was "unconstitutional;" but also of opinion, "after much serious reflection;" that the United States "had no power to coerce a seceding State," closing this part of the argument with the remark: "The fact is, the Union rests on public opinion, and can never be cemented by the blood of its citizens shed in Civil War."

Some days after the arrival of the news of the secession of South Carolina the "Eastern State Journal" published a sermon by the Rev. H. S. Van Dyke, in Brooklyn, on "Abolitionism," in which the Bible's defense of slavery was promulgated, and "Abolitionists" were denounced as "infidels." This sermon occupied ten columns of the paper, in small type, and the editor drew attention to the leading point—the "identity of Abolitionism and infidelity." Extracts from Southern papers formed the staple of news for the next few weeks and on January 11th the editor announced, "The mission of Black Republicanism is the destruction of the Union. The mission is being rapidly accomplished. South Carolina leads off in seceding. . . . Those who organized the Republican Party are responsible for the present condition of affairs." On January 18th the statement was made that "Yancey, Toombs and Rhett are no more disunionists than Horace Greeley." In this morbid strain the opinion of the majority of people in the territory of The Bronx and in Westchester County generally appears to have run till February 1st, when a "State Convention of Democrats" was announced to "insist" that there should be "no coercion, no civil war," with the assertion: "The border States will not permit Lincoln to coerce the Gulf States."

Firing on Fort Sumter—Following the firing on Fort Sumter the first heading that strikes the eye, for the journals in the vicinity leave something of a gap at this juncture, is that of the "Eastern State Journal," which is "Peace! Peace! Down with the Black Republicans;" though among the news items appears the account of the drilling of a company in White Plains, raised by Captain James J. Chambers, in which complimentary notice is given to the men. The news of the attack on Fort Sumter, and especially the tidings of its surrender, produced, as is well known, a great change of feeling in the city of New York, in favor of the administration of Lincoln and the effort made by him and

his party to put down the rebellion. The bombardment of the fort began on Friday, April 12, 1861; the place was surrendered by Major Anderson on Saturday, the thirteenth, after an attack in which one man was wounded, none were killed, on the side of the United States forces. The news was published in the papers on Sunday, the fourteenth, with the headline in the "New York Herald," "Dissolution of the Union." The people had all Sunday to think over the news and the comments made on it by the opponents of the administration. The exasperation of feeling produced by the news itself was intensified by the way in which these comments were made, and especially by the call made for a "peace meeting" in New York City. The "Herald," in the same issue in which the surrender of the fort and "the dissolution of the Union" were announced, stated that a "preliminary meeting" had been held on Saturday evening, at which steps were taken to call a great mass-meeting to "force" the administration to surrender, and desist from Lincoln's expressed intention to "coerce the seceding States." The Bronx territory and Westchester County in general were represented at this preliminary meeting by some prominent officials, who held to the extreme Democratic doctrines of "States rights."

In the country at large, however, and in the capital, things were moving in a manner that showed no lack of decision. On Monday, April 15th, appeared Lincoln's proclamation. It called for seventy-five thousand militia, for three months, to suppress the rebellion. The proclamation had the effect of a spark to a train of gunpowder in the city of New York, and the effect was felt north of the Harlem in a proportionate degree. Men who had been waiting, sick at heart, in view of the outwardly tranquil manner in which the government was submitting to destruction, realized that the end of toleration had come at last, and that public opinion might be invoked to foil the suicide of a nation. Then came the sudden outbreak in the city of a popular anger, which filled the streets, in five minutes from the first rush into the open air, with a dense crowd of excited men, whose only purpose seemed to be to make every Democratic newspaper in New York "hang out the flag." The populace had been aroused at last.

When demonstrations of this character could occur in a city that had cast a heavy majority against Lincoln it may well be supposed that in Albany, where his friends and partisans were in the ascendant in the Legislature, the state of feeling would rise still higher. Such proved to be the case; and the singular anomaly was presented in the history of that stirring time, that the President's demand found itself far behind the popular judgment of the needs of the case. The call was for seventy-five thousand militia for three months' service. It arrived on April 13th. On the day following the New York Legislature passed,

with unexampled celerity, and the Governor signed, a law providing—in addition to the quota assigned to New York State under the call (thirteen thousand, two hundred men)—for thirty thousand volunteers to serve for two years. The law authorized the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Comptroller, Attorney-General, State Engineer and Surveyor, and State Treasurer, "or a majority of them," to "accept the services, and to cause to be mustered into the service of the State" the volunteers named, "in addition to the present military organization of the State, and as a part of the militia thereof." It further provided for pay and allowances, the same as then prevailed in the United States service, to the force to be raised, and that the men should be "liable at all times to be turned over to the service of the United States, on the order of the Governor, as a part of the militia of the State, upon the requisition of the President of the United States."

Local Volunteers—The first formal identification of Westchester County with the two years' volunteers and the only one in the county in the shape of a body of men accredited thereto, came from the village of Port Chester in the shape of Company B, Seventeenth Infantry, known as the "Westchester Chasseurs." Interest attaches to this company as being the first to volunteer, in a body, for the credit of the town. Captain Bartram, who headed the company, was at the time of his enlistment vice-principal of one of the New York public schools, earning a good salary; and many people thought him one of the most foolish of men, to throw up a good place, merely for the purpose of "serving his country," so low had then become the popular estimate of the value of patriotism. The influence of such publications as the White Plains paper, from which a number of editorial extracts have been given, uttering words that were echoed, with more or less degree of force, by other papers north of the Harlem, had certainly not tended to encourage good feeling; and it reflected much credit on the town of Port Chester as it did on no other town in Westchester, that Bartram managed to get his company mustered into the service, in its entirety, as he did. He appears to have begun his work almost on the day the law was promulgated in the form of a general order from the adjutant-general of the State—and had his men ready to leave Port Chester before the end of the month. Even then, however, they might never have been mustered in as a company, had it not been for the energy and patriotism of a few men in Port Chester, who took hold of the matter and gave him their support.

There were, of course, many considerations that had to be weighed in view of the fact that so many workers would be called from their employment and from those dependent on them, and here, as in other matters, the localities just north of the Harlem set a good example

to other localities that were farther away. In Port Chester, before the Bartram company was fairly organized, it became plain that something was necessary to supply the families of the volunteers of the town, who were, in many instances, married men with children. Therefore, on April 30th, James H. Titus, a well-known citizen of that locality, set the ball rolling by subscribing a hundred dollars towards a fund for this purpose, with twenty-nine dollars additional, to pay the fares of the men to the camp of the Seventeenth Regiment in New York. He was closely followed on May 3rd by W. P. Abendroth, with a hundred dollars, and by May 9th the subscriptions amounted to four hundred and forty-four dollars. This money, and much more afterwards, was raised by a "Union Defense Committee," of which Mr. Titus, an ardent Republican, was chairman, and John E. Marshall, an equally uncompromising Democrat, was treasurer. The union of both parties in the same cause did much to soften the acerbities of political strife through the course of the war. In all the money raised by the Defense Committee during the war the only item which was not that of relief, in weekly payments, to the wives and parents of actual soldiers, was found in the sums first subscribed by Mr. Titus and applied to the purposes of the company itself. The hundred dollars served to keep the men together, by enabling their board to be paid in the city till accepted; while their fare was provided for to the camp. It is probable that if this sum had not been raised the company would have disbanded, and been lost sight of, as were others. The town of Cortlandt, almost at the same time, sent out sixty men, raised by Benjamin R. Simpkins. For the want of the money that kept the Port Chester company together, this fine body of young men became lost in New York, and drifted into different regiments, so that not a man of the sixty was ever credited to the county, and some of them even returned home. Another party of sixteen went off to White Plains, under the command of William M. Bleakley, of Verplanck's Point. On the roll of Company A, Twenty-seventh Regiment, they appear as credited to Elmira. The company of Joseph J. Chambers was another instance of the confusion of affairs, for though the men hailed from White Plains, they were likewise credited to Elmira.

Other towns north of the Harlem lost a great number of men in the same way, no mention of them being found in the official records of the two years' volunteers. The whole history of the two years' volunteers in Westchester County is one of men pressing their services on the government, which seemed not to want them; and it cost more trouble, in the months of April and May, 1861, to get into the army at all, than it afterwards did to get out of the draft. Captain Bartram managed to identify Port Chester officially with the movement, but

no other town in Westchester County could boast of an equal record, either in volunteering or in patriotic efforts to help soldiers by private means. But the two years' volunteers were not long in being filled up; and the serious nature of the war, with the equally serious way in which it was regarded by the Legislature of the State, appeared almost before the last man was mustered into the United States service. The first order of the adjutant-general, on April 18th, called for "seventeen regiments of infantry or rifles." A second order appeared on the twenty-fifth of the same month calling for twenty-one regiments more; so that the complete quota of two years' volunteers, in the State of New York, included all regiments, up to the Thirty-eighth. Within a week from the time when the Port Chester company was finally mustered into the United States service, May 22nd, the Thirty-ninth Regiment was mustered in as an additional force, and the term of service of the men enlisted was three, instead of two, years. From that time forth the history of Westchester during the war was to become the history of quotas to be filled and calls to be met, while the ideas with which the two years' men had gone away, that the struggle would soon be over, had settled down into the sober conviction that the three years' term would be the earliest within which the battle would be terminated.

Organizing Military Units—The first regiment taken into the United States service from the State of New York for the term of three years was mustered in on May 28, 1861. The first identification of the region north of the Harlem with the three years' volunteers came on the rolls of the Fourth New York Cavalry, which was mustered by companies, beginning August 10th and ending November 15, 1861. The next organization in which Westchester appears to have taken any official part was the Fifth Independent Battery, mustered into the United States service on November 8, 1861, in New York City. The roll of this battery contained the names of Privates Charles Cadigan and John Turbitt, from Yonkers; and Benjamin Moore and Charles Moore, from Mount Vernon.

The First Regiment Mounted Rifles, which was mustered into the service in squadrons and companies, all the way from August 31, 1861, to September 9, 1862, may be cited as the only regiment in which Westchester County could be said to have been fully represented during the war. This concludes the raising of the three years' volunteers in Westchester County as organizations, of which the records are accessible, in an official form, up to the raising of the regiment whose rolls are next in order.

The Sixth Heavy Artillery was originally raised at Yonkers for the One Hundred and Thirty-fifth New York Infantry, and was mustered into the service from September 2, 1862, for three years. It then con-

sisted of eight companies, but in December of that year two more were added, and the whole was mustered in as the Sixth Heavy Artillery at Fort McHenry, Baltimore, Maryland. The last organization with which the Westchester region appears to have been identified was the Sixteenth (Sprague Light) Cavalry, which was mustered into the service from June to October, 1863. The companies in this regiment to which men were furnished by the Westchester region were K L and M. This closes the history of the three years' volunteers in Westchester County, as far as the original enlistments were concerned, the names being found on the original muster-rolls, but not including subsequent enlistments, which did not appear in the publication issued by the State adjutant-general.

Clashing Views on the War—During the war opinion and feeling in the valley of the Bronx and in the Westchester region were not marked by any smooth and rounded harmony. There was great difference of view and there was a good deal of party rancor; and it is important, in stating the facts as they appeared, to bear in mind the pre-existing prejudices which had made them possible. The prime cause of the divisions was the close proximity to the city of New York, to which the country looked for light and leading, and whose opinions and passions it reflected. As in the case of the Revolutionary War Westchester County became a sort of debatable ground, on which both parties strove for the ascendant. The reproachful terms of "Whig," "Tory," "Cowboy," and "Skinner" were changed to "Abolitionist," "Copperhead," "Nigger-Worshipper" and "Traitor." Families were divided; churches were rent into factions; and actual fighting was only spared to the region of The Bronx and Westchester County generally during the draft riots of 1863 by the fact that the rioters did not screw up their courage to the fighting point till it was too late to do anything. The most prominent factor in the feeling, as shown in the comments of the "Eastern State Journal," already quoted, was intense dislike of the Republicans, rather than active sympathy with the Secessionists. At the time of Lincoln's election the majority of the voters in the country north of the Harlem honestly believed with the "Eastern State Journal" that all Republicans were designing knaves, who strongly desired to break up the Union.

To the period of the extinction of the old Whig party the distinction between that alignment of view and the ideals of Democracy had been broad, simple and easily understood. The one party was centralizing, the other decentralizing. The disturbing element of slavery had altered all this; the old line of demarcation gradually vanished; but the forms of expression that had been used so long did not die with the ideas they were aimed at expressing. The extreme partisans on both sides

kept on talking and thinking about abstractions that had ceased to have any real existence. Under the operation of the Fugitive State Law, the Democrats had become advocates of "Federal Coercion," in favor of slavery, in Kansas; while the Republicans preached extreme doctrines of "State-rights," in the "personal Liberty Laws," by which the Northern States resisted or evaded the opposition of the United States marshals, whenever it was sought to enforce the act. Individuals of the party, like Wendell Phillips, openly denounced the Union as "a covenant with death, and a league with hell." Furthermore, a spirit of sectional pride, roused by the arrogant bearing of Southern members of Congress and by the assault of Brooks of South Carolina on Charles Sumner, was gradually becoming prominent. The young men of the party, not unjustly denominated "sectional," in the North, were getting ready to fight, just as the Southern youths were preparing in their own States for the coming conflict. The Democrats, who under Thomas Jefferson had been distrustful of the Constitution, insisting on amendments in the direction of personal liberty, had, in 1860, become the most ardent of "Constitutional-worshippers," insisting on the absolute perfection of the instrument and on the right of the Southern States to full protection, under its provisions, for their slaves, in the free States. In the legal aspect of the case they had the advantage of the concurrence of the Supreme Court on their side. The Republicans, on the other hand, treated the "constitutional" arguments as not practical, and constantly shifted the ground to that of the right or wrong of slavery. They cultivated habits, which did not leave them, during the war, of decrying their opponents as "dough-faces," "trucklers to the South," "men devoid of proper spirit," and after the war had begun, even as "traitors." The Democrats retorted, with equal conviction, charges that the Republicans were not "true Union men"; that they were not "for the Union, under all circumstances, with or without slavery." It was the fact that there was a measure of truth at the bottom of all these recriminations that rendered them so exasperating, causing party feeling to run higher in the region north of the Harlem than in any other part of the Union, save the city of New York, Southern Indiana, or New Jersey.

It has often been remarked that the war between the North and the South would never have taken place had the people of the two sections known each other better. It is also true that the party divisions that rent Westchester County would never have arisen to such proportions and such a level of bitterness had the members of both parties tried to see, in the minds of the others, the real convictions which underlay the apparently radical differences in politics. The literature of the time, carefully perused, appears to show that there was scarcely a

real "Secessionist" to be found at all in the Westchester region. Even the Democrats were opposed to secession, though they held to Buchanan's doctrine that the Union "rested on Public opinion," and "could never be cemented by the blood of its citizens." Their real antipathy to the Republicans arose out of the fear of centralization and military despotism, which after-facts showed to be unjustified by the designs of Lincoln's administration.

Bull Run and the Press—The official paper of Westchester County, as the "Eastern State Journal," published at White Plains, may be considered, will perhaps testify better than any other source the state of feeling of the region north of the Harlem. The "Journal" on May 17, 1861, put at the head of its columns the following card, which it kept up till the November of the following year, as an explicit statement of its position in the contest:

"THE TRUE SENTIMENT

"Mr. Lincoln is not the United States Government. The government is ours and we owe allegiance to it. Mr. Lincoln is not ours, and we do not owe allegiance to him. Mr. Lincoln's term of office is brief and fleeting: the government, we hope, will last forever."

The editorial article, in the first paper in which this "true sentiment" is put forth, contains an argument to the effect that when the war is over the Fugitive Slave Law should at once be enforced. On May 21st, the editor, in answer to a Republican paper, which had just been started, the "Morrisania Journal," explained the "true sentiment" at length; and accused the Republicans of carrying on the war for party purposes, simply. He concludes with the assertion: "The Republicans stand by their administration; the Democrats by our government." From this time to the battle of Bull Run, the fight is carried with the "Morrisania Journal." The paper is full of sneers at "Abolitionists," and teems with assertions that "the volunteers in the field are in the proportion of three Democrats to one Republican," with the further assertion that "all Abolitionists are cowards." In July the paper drops politics on the first page and begins to put in serial stories, paying much attention to local items, and ignoring the war as much as possible. It is full of a Fourth of July local celebration; and the only indication of the old feeling crops out in the paragraph, "No abolitionism. The border Slave States might be conciliated, if a promise was given them that their slaves should be retained." The editor hopes "that Horace Greeley will be thrown overboard," and that "Democrats will be called to advise Mr. Lincoln."

The news of Bull Run brings a marked approval of the "peace resolution," introduced by Benjamin Wood in Congress, and laid on the table by Mr. Washburn, of Illinois. The editor asks, "When will the

war end?" and says that "another administration must come in before peace is likely to be restored to the country." In August the editor indignantly repudiates the assertion that "the anti-slavery feeling is spreading at the North," but admits the "apostasy" of several Congressmen, who are voting with the administration to prosecute the war. It glories in the fact that Mr. Haight, the member from the home district, is still opposed to the prosecution of the war. It further draws satisfaction from the fact that the Democratic State Convention has refused to join the Republicans in nominating a "Union State Ticket" of both parties, united only in prosecuting the war. This refusal is justified by the editor on the ground of the radical differences on the subject of slavery. On August 16th there begins in the journal a bitter controversy on the suspension of the law of habeas corpus, when the sheriff of Kings County tries to get out of Fort Lafayette the Baltimore Police commissioners confined there under an order of General Banks for treasonable action in Maryland. From this date it appears that the Republican papers, recently established north of the Harlem, are beginning to strike back, for the editor is very indignant at being classed with the "Yonkers Herald," and "Highland Democrat" as "three penny-whistle, traitor sheets." He indignantly asks "if all the men opposed to the Mexican War and the War of 1812 were traitors?" and answers: "No, we are not traitors. . . We admit that the secessionists forced the war on us. . . . But we hate Abraham Lincoln's principles. . . . We have exposed corruption wherever we have found it. . . . If this be treason, make the most of it. . . . If hatred of the Chicago platform be treason, we are traitors. So are three-fourths of our soldiers, and they would refuse to march a step if they thought that their loyalty was to be measured by such a standard."

Feeling ran very high, and the editor found he was running against the current. In the next few days the White Plains paper, along with the "Highland Democrat" and the "Yonkers Herald," were formally presented by the grand jury in the following terms:

"The Grand Jury of the county of Westchester, recognizing the existence of the war in which the country is now engaged, with an armed rebellion in a portion of the confederacy; and the necessity for its vigorous prosecution, until an honorable peace is conquered; and desirous of having public opinion so fixed, and individual action so shaped, in the hitherto loyal county of Westchester, in regard to the war, as to prevent breaches of the peace; feel it a duty to call the attention of all loyal citizens and the magistracy of the county to the importance of every one within its borders contributing every honorable effort to the sustaining of the Federal arm, in maintaining the supremacy of the laws of the land, and in crushing out the rebellion of the southern traitors. They

therefore admonish all citizens of the fact that in a state of war, international as well as local war declares the giving of aid and comfort to the enemies of a government, either by overt acts in assisting its enemies, or by writings or publications, tending to give such aid and comfort, the crime of misprision of treason, to be punished, or conviction, by imprisonment.

"The Grand Inquest of the county, having had brought to their attention sundry articles, which have appeared in newspapers, published within this county, denying the justice of the war, in which we are engaged, treating it as a party war, and not involving in its issues the government itself and our national existence, and therein sympathizing with the traitors to the Republic, deem it proper, in conservation of the peace of the county, that the proprietors and editors of these papers should be by them publicly admonished of the great moral, if not legal, crime, in which, from partizan motives, they have been indulging, to the danger of the peace and quiet of the people, and, lest injustice should be done to loyal newspapers, the following journals are particularly designated as disseminators of doctrines, which in the existing state of things, tend to give aid and comfort to the enemies of the government, and to prevent a vigorous prosecution of the war, by which alone the supremacy of the government is to be maintained, and national peace and prosperity witnessed in the land:

"The 'Yonkers Herald,' 'Highland Democrat,' and 'Eastern State Journal,' from the time of the issue of the President's Proclamation, immediately after the firing on Fort Sumter, steadily treated the war which has followed, in the extracts and articles they have published, as an unholy and partizan war, unjustly commenced and prosecuted by the administration. In so doing it has evidently been their purpose to consolidate a party, by the aid of whose opposition and influence they might prevent enlistments and retard the successful prosecution of the war."

Two New York City papers are further mentioned as circulating in the county, with similar doctrines, and the presentment proceeds:

The Grand Jurors, therefore, invoke the attention of the District Attorney of this county to the prosecution of the editors and proprietors named, if hereafter, after this public notice of their evil course, they should persist in thus continuing to give aid and comfort to the enemies of the government, and they request him to certify and transmit a copy of the presentment to the United States District Attorney of the Southern District of New York, with a view to his commencing such proceedings thereon as the nature of the circumstances may require.

Stephen Lyon, Foreman.
W. Swinburne, Clerk.

This expression of feeling on the part of the Grand Jury naturally had its effect in the office of the "Eastern State Journal." The editor

was a White Plains man, living within a stone's throw of the court-house and personally known to all the members of the Grand Jury, and he exerted himself to the utmost to get rid of the stain the document had produced on his reputation. He managed to get a letter from the foreman of the jury, which he published in the issue of his paper in the week following, stating that he (the foreman) had voted against putting the "Eastern State Journal" in the list of papers presented, but he had been outvoted, and therefore had signed the presentment. Mr. Lyon, in thus baring the secrets of the Grand Jury room, did what he could to save a neighbor by further saying that he was "one of nine" who voted to strike the "Journal" off the list. Next week the indefatigable editor managed to get two more men who were on the Grand Jury to say that they voted against the presentment, and as soon as this consummation was reached he burst out into indignant denunciation of the men who voted for it, as a "corrupt and debauched clique;" "curs who have snarled and snapped at our heels for years;" as men who needed "a sound kicking" for "besliming and befouling all they touch," while "their putrid breath" so corrupted the air that the editor had difficulty in selecting the right atmosphere by which to replenish his own pure respiratory organs.

Nevertheless the presentment had a marked effect on the tone of the paper for some weeks, for the next editorial conclusion on "what patriotism demands of party organization" in the crisis was that the Democrats should, in future, "stick together on local issues," and let the administration carry on the war without interference. In the issue of the week that followed the editor spoke of the "determined and loyal course of the President." After that he explained his motto in a different spirit; printed Union letters and speeches, in one of which a War Democrat declared compromise to be impracticable; and so the paper sailed quietly along until the date of the State elections, at which the Democrats were exhorted to hold together—"Stick to your party," "Vote the Democratic State Ticket," "Stand by the old party," "Don't be humbugged by the cry of no-party-ism," "It is an old dodge," etc. The result of the election—which was for Secretary of State and other officers, in the off year—gave the Republicans a considerable majority. With the first appearance of Judge Robertson in the capacity of State Senator the editor finds comfort in the removal of Fremont, effected about the same time, which he assumes to be a mark of "proper respect to the sentiments of the Democracy of the North."

If the subsequent course during the war of the "Eastern State Journal" was a proper criterion there still remained a body of opinion strenuously opposed to the conduct of the war. The tone of that journal during 1862 became more decided in opposition to its prosecution,

though the formal statement of its attitude, as indicated in the "True Sentiment," which it put at the head of its columns, was dropped. There were no more articles openly abusing "Abolitionists," but the paper stuck to the doctrine, as late as April 20, 1862, that "the general government has, even in war, no more power" to coerce a rebellious State "than the Constitution gives it," and therefore none to confiscate slaves or set them free. The vituperation directed against the "Abolitionists" is changed, as the summer goes on, to philippics on "lazy, mindless negroes," and predictions of a "San Domingo massacre," if the slaves of the South are ever freed. As the autumn comes on, however, the nomination of Horatio Seymour puts the editor on his feet again, and he begins to threaten the "Abolitionists" more boldly every day. In December he closes the year 1862 by referring to the coincidence of the Emancipation Proclamation of Mr. Lincoln and the election of Mr. Seymour to be Governor of New York as "The Two Proclamationists." The one he characterizes as mere "waste paper, impossible of enforcement," while the other is "A proclamation that the State of New York is free once more." The lines, "The Democracy Triumphant," "The Administration is not the Government," came out in every issue, and "it is a noticeable fact," observes one commentator, "that in this paper, as in the 'Yonkers Herald-Gazette,' as the virulence of the tone increases, so does the pressure of the county advertising increase also, showing what powerful influences were behind the papers, in the shape of the county officers."

The circumstance that a part of the Westchester Grand Jury considered the spirit of the White Plains journal not quite disloyal enough to be included in the presentment drawn up by it against the press would indicate that its tone and sentiments may be taken as representing the attitude of the more modern Democrats who stayed at home during the war and voted for Horatio Seymour, as they did. The figures of the election in the county are rather against the assertion of the "Journal" that "three-fourths of the volunteers from the county" were Democrats, for the vote cast for Seymour for Governor was seven thousand, eight hundred and sixty-six, a decrease from the presidential vote of only two hundred and sixty votes, while the Republican vote was only five thousand, five hundred and fifty-six, which was a decrease of one thousand, one hundred and fifteen votes from that cast for the Lincoln electors two years before.

Draft Riots North of Harlem—The most notable occurrence in the affairs of The Bronx territory and the county of Westchester during the war, following the election of Horatio Seymour, was the series of incidents known as the draft riots, which, beginning in the city of New York, overflowed into the country around. The troubles in the city be-

gan on July 13, 1863. The New York papers of that day recorded that the draft was begun on the previous Saturday, in the Twenty-second Ward, at No. 677 Third Avenue, and went on to say that "all was quiet, with plenty of good-natured joking at the names of the citizens as they were drawn." They also announced that the next place to be opened would be at the corner of Broadway and Forty-fifth Street, on Monday morning. Thus it will be seen that, as in the case of the Fort Sumter excitement, a serious action had taken place on Saturday and that the people had all Sunday to think over it. In the first case the result of the twenty-four hours' meditation had been in the direction of patriotism. This time it was to be different. The mob of April, 1861, had foreseen nothing personal in the approach of events, and aimed merely at compelling the "hanging out of the United States flag." There was a stronger motive impelling the crowd of July, 1863, for they considered they were being drafted for the war in an unfair manner. The general anger soon took the form of violence. Summed up in short order, the first day's work was the burning of the provost marshal's offices, the destruction of the lists according to which the draft was to be enforced, the tearing up of the railroad tracks, the cutting of telegraph wires, the mobbing of individual soldiers found on the streets, the murder of other soldiers, resistance to the police of the most violent sort, the burning of an orphan asylum for colored children, the burning and sacking of many private houses, the hanging of negroes wherever they were to be found by the mob, an attack on the counting room of the "New York Tribune," and the saving of it by a charge of police under Captain Thorne. On the second day of the rioting there was the murder of Captain O'Brien, of the Eleventh Regiment, while he was separated from his troops. The city on this day was in the general control of the rioters, so that troops had to be telegraphed for. Meanwhile there was fierce fighting between the mob and the police.

It was in the course of this second day's disturbance that the districts north of the Harlem became involved in the disturbance. Crowds visited the enrolling offices of Morrisania and West Farms, tore up the enrolling lists, destroyed the telegraph offices at William's Bridge and Melrose, ripped up rails on the New Haven and Harlem roads, near the Bronx River, planted pickets on both roads as far as Mount Vernon to signal when a general attempt to tear up the tracks might be made. Eventually the mob was brought to a more even frame of mind by appeals issued by Supervisor Cauldwell and Pierre C. Talman. A telegraph operator on this day attempted to put an instrument into a store at Hunt's Bridge, near Mount Vernon, but the proprietor was intimidated by a message from sympathizers with the mob to the effect that if the instrument was not removed the store would be gutted. On this,

the second day, there was a complete reign of terror, though no violence appears to have been perpetrated north of the Harlem beyond the acts chronicled above.

On Wednesday evening a meeting was called in the town hall at Tremont, which was heavily attended by the people of West Farms, Morrisania and the vicinity. It was presided over by John B. Haskin, and was reported in the "New York Herald" of Friday, till which time the notes of the reporter appear to have been crowded out by the pressure of other news. It may be remarked that the "Herald" reports of the incidents of the week seem the best to be found, the facts being given with considerable detail, without much visible attempt to color them. The "Herald" gives this account of Mr. Haskin's speech:

"They had met in a crisis which required the greatest coolness and judgment on the part of the people. He hoped that the proceedings would be characterized, hereafter, as the conduct of honest and law-abiding citizens. That it was not their interest to uphold the Administration in the odious and unconstitutional Conscription Act (cheers), but there was a way to test it, in the courts. In his opinion, the act of 1792, providing for calling out the militia, was fully equal to the present emergency in the history of the Rebellion. That the men who made the Constitution passed that act, with the express object of giving power to raise the troops necessary in emergencies. When Mr. Lincoln made his first call, it was good enough for the purpose. Then the State had a Republican Governor. Now it had a Democratic Governor and the old law was worthless. The chief executive of the State was to be deprived of his power, that his duties might be transferred to government satraps, to execute the will of the irresponsible authorities at Washington (cheers). This was an insult to Mr. Seymour and an insult to the loyal people who elected him (great cheers). If the Administration was afraid to trust the Governor, afraid to trust the people of the State, it was fresh proof of the imbecility of the men who now controlled the destinies of the Republic (cheers). He argued that the State courts must declare the act constitutional or unconstitutional, and by their decrees the government must abide. Therefore, why this excitement? Their rights would be protected, their privileges maintained, no matter at what hazard or at what cost (cheers). He referred to the exemption clause ($300) as being an invidious distinction between the rich and the poor (yes, yes). It was undemocratic, unwise, and he did not wonder that they objected to it. He preferred the old law under which all classes bore equal responsibility (cheers). Our recent brilliant victories made it easy for volunteers to be raised, to put down the Rebellion. Let the government abandon the conscription act and cast itself on the patriotism of the people (great cheers).

There were men enough to volunteer, good men of their own free will. Such men would fight better, and be an honor to the service. He went on in this strain for some time, and then denounced the rioters for robbery, and declared the hanging of inoffensive negroes a disgrace to the age in which we live. They ought rather to be protected, as the weak have a right to the protection of the strong. He was sure that this meeting did not approve of the burning of Orphan Asylums, be they for blacks or whites. There should be no distinction of nationalities, colors or races. Then the speaker denounced the excesses of Know-Nothingism bitterly, the audience applauding heartily. He alluded to General McClellan, who was cheered enthusiastically, and General Grant's name was also greeted with cheers, the news of Vicksburg being fresh at the time.

"Mr. Pierre C. Talman followed in similar strain, expressing his confidence that the meeting before him would be the last people in the world to violate the laws. He reminded them that the abolitionist fanatics, who were rapidly losing their grip on the people, desired nothing better than to regain it through the excesses of a mob. (Groans for the Abolitionists). But the workingmen of Westchester County were always ready for peace and the law (cheers). He animadverted on the exemption clause, as an odious distinction, and reminded them that the Governor (great cheers) wanted it tested in the State courts and declared unconstitutional (cheers). Then he denounced the excesses in New York, which, he said, where all committed by thieves, who had taken advantage of the excitement to disgrace the people. Mr. Talman was much applauded.

"During his speech, however, he was interrupted by a man, who asked if it was not true that Mr. Haskin had a negro in his employment and what right he had to keep one? Haskin got up at once and replied that he had such a man, the same who hoisted the first Union flag on Roanoke Island, that it was no one's business whether he kept an Irishman, German, Swede, negro, or anybody else in his employment; that he intended to keep the man as long as he pleased. The statement was cheered and his questioner was silenced.

"This meeting adopted a set of resolutions, condemning the draft; expressing confidence in Horatio Seymour, in his efforts to get it declared unconstitutional; affirmed the judgment of the people of Morrisania and West Farms that the act was unconstitutional, and deprecated mob violence. They appointed Messrs. Talman, G. W. Cauldwell, Franklin W. Gilley, Thomas E. Sutton, John B. Haskin, John Kirby and Terence Kennedy, a committee, 'to wait on Moses G. Sheard, Esq., Federal Provost Marshal of the district,' to 'insist that the draft be stopped till the State court could decide whether it was constitutional'."

The meeting gives a good indication of the condition of feeling at the time. The speakers managed the mass of excited men, whom it was their task to quiet, with considerable skill. They regaled them with assurances that their opposition to the draft was all right. They appealed to their self-respect, and the appointment of the committee ended the whole matter. The region of The Bronx and Westchester County in general was tranquil after the meeting, the more so since on the same day the return of the troops from Pennsylvania and the report of fierce fighting in the city, in which the mob was getting the worst of it, had a tendency to kill the idea that attempts at violence were to be made with safety. Elsewhere north of the Harlem the disturbances went no further than aimless tumults, which resulted in no actual bloodshed as far as can be ascertained from the reports of the facts which are available. Thomas J. Byrne, the county enrolling officer at White Plains, was fired at as he was driving home at night, but returned the fire with a revolver, and got away safe. His house was visited by a mob a couple of days later after dark. The enrollment papers were burnt, the house was sacked, and his wife and two children were forced to take refuge in the house of Edward Haight. Mr. Byrne himself was away from home at the time or the consequences might have been more serious. On the same day the Hudson River train was stopped at Yonkers, the rails having been torn up between that place and the city, so that the Canadian mail had to be taken to New York on the boat. The citizens of Yonkers formed two companies of Home Guards to keep property and life safe, but there was no serious disturbance. The arsenal was guarded day and night. At Tarrytown a guard was also formed, and procured a cannon to overawe the mob, so that all was peaceful along the Hudson River. On the same day—Wednesday—there was very nearly a serious disturbance in the town of Eastchester.

Thus a crowd of men and boys from the quarries of the village of Tuckahoe set out from that place, gathering recruits from the villages near them, armed with sticks, stones and any rude weapons they could lay their hands on, and took up their march for the village of Mount Vernon, with the avowed object of "burning down the houses of all the Republicans in the place." The men were probably excited by the accounts given in the city papers of the way in which the same vengeance had been meted out to well-known Republicans in the city, one house having been actually burned down, "because Horace Greeley once boarded there," as reported by the "Tribune," "Herald" and "World." At all events they started out, and the news reached Mount Vernon, where a Home Guard had been hastily formed by the citizens, who were much alarmed at the idea of being attacked, both from the city

and the river. Volunteers were called for to reconnoitre the enemy; and a drummer boy, home on sick furlough at the time, was found, who said he would go. A horse was furnished him and he boylike must needs put on his uniform and ride off. He met about two miles from the village, coming out of the lane from Bronxville, towards Mount Vernon, a confused crowd of men, who stopped him and asked him where he was going. He replied that he was going to Bronxville, and asked them in turn where they were going. The reply was: "We are going to raise hell," with which they began to throw stones at him and yell, so that he was glad to wheel his horse and gallop away. Probably his youth and apparent innocence saved him from serious harm, for no effort was made to pursue him and he got away safe. Returning and trying to take a short cut across the swamp towards Mount Vernon, he got his horse mired just behind the house of John G. Satterlee, afterwards known as "the Corson Place," and had to leave the animal and run the rest of the way to the village on foot. Preparations were made to receive the rioters by the Home Guards, who occupied two buildings, one being a cartridge factory. Towards the end of the afternoon the rioters made their appearance, but in the meantime they had been met by several prominent Democrats of the place, at a turn in the road, known as "Sageman's Corners," where they were induced to give up their design of actual arson, though they remained obstinate in their determination to march into Mount Vernon. They went down the White Plains road, where it runs into Fourth Avenue, Mount Vernon. They threw stones at windows in First Street, at the corner of Fourth Avenue, and in Fourth Avenue itself. They shouted, flourished sticks, and yelled; but after marching a little way down First Street, they turned back at the bridge over the New Haven track, known as "Scott's Bridge," and went home.

Thus ended the last actual attempt at violence in the neighborhood of The Bronx and even in the county of Westchester. The Mount Vernon affair found little space in the periodical journals and to F. Whittaker is due the credit for painstakingly gathering some of the incidents together. Two of the ringleaders of the mob, which marched into Mount Vernon, were recognized, and one of them, after the war, became a town official, well known for his good nature. The story of the little fracas is indicative of the excitement into which many in the neighborhood were worked by the inflammatory appeals of journals opposed to the war, and how nearly the neighborhood was disgraced by bloodshed. Men, who at other times would not have harmed a kitten, were thrown into a frenzy by the belief that they were being grossly wronged, and were ready for any sort of violence. That they had in this case no intention of perpetrating actual murder appears to be

shown by the fact of their restraint, when they spared the rash little drummer boy, who actually rode into the midst of them, wearing his uniform. It is true his horse was struck by a few stones by angry hands, but they were clearly not intended to hurt the boy. His name was Joseph H. Porter, and he afterwards enlisted in the Thirteenth New York Cavalry from New York City and served to the close of the war.

The Press and Lincoln—The suppression of the draft riots in New York City, the capture of Chattanooga, and the general advance of the armies of the Potomac and the West, in the spring of 1864, had their influence on the general feeling in the neighborhood of The Bronx and in Westchester County generally. There was a decided change in the attitude of the unfriendly papers. In Yonkers in particular this change was considered so necessary that on May 7th the editor of the "Herald" of that town, formally resigned, and the journal passed into the control of a stock company, known as the "Yonkers Democratic Publishing Association," under which the paper, which appears from the farewell announcement of the editor to have been in a far from prosperous condition, was carried on to the termination of the war. Its tone, under the new control, was no longer one of open hostility to the prosecution of the war, but dealt chiefly in personal attacks on Lincoln, on the ground of his "frivolous nature" and his "buffoonery." On May 21, 1864, the noted forged proclamation of Joe Howard and the suppression of the copies of the "World" and the "Journal of Commerce," which contained them, are noticed, with much outcry concerning the liberty of the press. The split in the Republican party, threatened by the nomination of Fremont, under the inspiration of Gratz Brown, who ran with Horace Greeley in 1872, on the Democratic ticket, is noticed, with unconcealed hopes of a favorable issue for the Democracy. The cry of corruption was thus raised in the same issue of the paper:

> That stench of official corruption in Washington at this moment is ranker than that even that arising from the thousands of unburied bodies of horses and men, that strew the soil of Virginia. There may have been corruption under previous administrations; but under that of "honest old Abe" it is positively frightful.

A few days later the Yonkers "Herald" wants General Dix punished "by damages in a civil action," since he "cannot be reached by the State courts, or court-martial," for having closed the "World" and "Journal of Commerce," because there was no hope in Congress—"it was too thoroughly servile." "No Senate, in the corruptest days of Rome, registered every decree of its military tyrant with more slavish alacrity than is displayed by the administration majority in fulfilling the will of Abraham Lincoln." Noticing the nomination of Lincoln at the regular Republican Convention, the Yonkers "Herald" remarks:

"Another four years of 'Honest old Abe' would leave nothing but the shadow of a Republic on the American continent." It thanks the "Eastern State Journal" and "Highland Democrat" for the welcome extended by them to the paper under the new management. On June 4th the name of the paper is changed to the "Gazette," and a great boom begins in the advertising columns, from the quantity of county advertising thrown in, as in the case of the "Eastern State Journal," by the county officials. On the same day begins a period of controversy with the "Yonkers Statesman," formerly the "Examiner," the leading Republican newspaper of the county, with regard to accusations made against the "Gazette," for "disloyalty." This is how the editor expresses himself:

"We confess to the smallest possible amount of respect for Republican professions of 'loyalty,' or Republican charges of 'disloyalty.' The word is not American, nor Republican even—here it originally expressed the treasonable attachment of the loyal Tories to George the Third, in his wanton war against American liberty; and, as now used, it generally means partisan devotion to Abraham Lincoln, not in resistance to a Southern rebellion, but in a would-be second war on the liberties of American citizens."

Early in June comes the notice of the Democratic Convention being called by August Belmont, on which the editor exhorts his readers that "Civil liberty cannot survive another term of Abraham Lincoln." In the week that followed we find an article on "Reconstruction," the trend of which is given in the following extract: "What is the political relation of the rebellious States to the Union? Have their own acts and ordinances taken them out of it, as they themselves claim? If not, has the President, or Congress even, the right to expel States from the Union? If these States are still members of the Union, can new States be carved out of them without their own consent, against the prohibition of the Constitution on that head? On some of these points we entertain very decided opinions, which we refrain, however, from expressing in this article."

In the course of the summer the "Gazette" is exercised over what it regards as the progress of "military despotism," having regard to the suppression of the bogus proclamation, and particularly in view of the fact that the New York Grand Jury, appealed to by Judge Russell, to investigate in the matter, considered it "inexpedient to inquire into the action of the general government as to certain newspapers in this city." The "Gazette" calls on the judge to summon another Grand Jury and on Oakley Hall, the district attorney, to do his best to have it out in a conflict between the State of New York and the United States on the subject. "We sincerely trust," the paper says, "the authorities will not

be intimidated by the declaration of war upon them by Mr. Lincoln. Let it be made known to him that he cannot play the dictator over the people and laws of the State of New York, or let us prepare for worse than Austrian slavery."

Through the latter part of the summer to the middle of September the "Gazette" is occupied with definitions of principle, of which the following is an example: "He who avows that he is not for the Union, without conditions, is disunionist, let him be Abraham Lincoln or Jefferson Davis.... The only Union man is he who is for the Union, *without* conditions." There are also a number of stories about the "branding" of United States recruits, which are repeated from week to week, with the obvious intention of discouraging ignorant men from enlisting. As the election approaches the "Gazette" becomes more pronounced in its appeals to the people in favor of slavery, such as this:

The Difference.—The Democratic Platform is, the Union at all hazards; the Republican Platform is, Abolition at all hazards. The difference between the candidates: Lincoln is for the Union, without slavery; McClellan is for the Union, with or without slavery; Lincoln is for the Union on certain conditions; McClellan, at all hazards; Lincoln has been tried and found wanting; McClellan has always shown himself equal to emergency. With this brief and intelligent view of the merits of the present contest, no thinking man will hesitate regarding how or where his vote shall be cast.

From the beginning of October to the date of the election, the paper is full of reports of mass-meetings, political advertising and appeals to voters to "register, register." On November 13th, the conclusion is: "The grand old Democratic party of the State of New York yields the battlefield, covered with all the glory a nobly contested struggle can confer upon it." A touch of humor is attached to the issue of the paper by a glance at the advertising column, placed opposite the editorial. The advertisement that catches the eye is as follows:

The Re-election of ABRAHAM LINCOLN, and
The election of ANDREW JOHNSON, and
The UNIVERSAL UNION TRIUMPH will be celebrated in Yonkers, Tuesday evening, November 15th, by a TORCHLIGHT PROCESSION and ILLUMINATION. All UNION men and LOYAL citizens are cordially invited to take a share in the celebration. Yonkers, November 9, 1864.

N. P. Otis, Sec. John V. Paddon, Chairman.

The defeat of November appears to have considerably sobered the conductors of the "Gazette." It subsides and remains in an inactive state during the rest of the month. On December 2, the readers are edified by some pious instructions—the heading of which is "Charity." The editor remarks:

The meddlesome notions of New England Puritanism found a congenial topic

in the slavery question, and decreed, at an early date, that there should no longer be peace on earth, or good will among men unless the negroes were emancipated... The full fruits of such teachings are just now visible in the want of charity manifested by the supporters of Mr. Lincoln's administration towards their political opponents. Differences of opinion...are made the subject of unjust charges of disloyalty and treason to the country... This bitterness and uncharity are a stain on the national character. They constitute a state of feeling discreditable to charitable people and which deserves the severest condemnation. For the credit of our common humanity, we wish there were less of it prevalent among us.

On December 24, the "Gazette" observes:

"Any President, not wedded to a line of policy which he knows the South will never acquiesce in—the abolition of slavery—would see that it is just the time to extend the olive-branch of peace." It then announces with relief that the "Yonkers quota is at last filled." Trouble appears to have existed on this matter of quotas during the year, for there are frequent appeals to the "rich men of Yonkers to come forward, especially those that have not been drafted, and help the rest to buy substitutes." The appeal was little to the credit of the backsliders, many of whom simulated a belief in the inevitableness and righteousness of slavery, in order to excuse their cowardice. There is an intensification of appeal in the middle of June when the drafts were threatened.

The "Gazette" of February 4, 1865, records the passage of the Constitutional Amendment against slavery with a great lamentation over its being "irritating to the South." The issue of February 11th records the circumstance that "in the Legislature of this State the Democrats all voted against the adoption of the amendment." On February 18th, we find the following: "If McClellan had been elected, the 'Albany Argus' truthfully says, the people of the South, who long for peace, would have been looking as eagerly for the fourth of March as the Democrats of the North. General McClellan would have treated with the States of the Confederacy separately for a return to the Union; would have appealed to the people; would have concerted with the generals of the Confederacy to detach their armies from the dynasty at Richmond." On March 11, the paper rejoices over the rejection by New Jersey, Delaware, and Kentucky of the Constitutional Amendment, and hopes that one more State will follow their example, so as to make the adoption impossible.

In the meantime the quota continues to be a subject of anxiety, and the circumstance is noted that Yonkers has spent $100,000 in town bonds, with $144,000 in county bonds, in filling the different quotas. On April 8th, the news is given out that "Richmond is ours at last." The paper wants a "magnanimous peace and amnesty." It notes the fact that "three hundred millions have been paid out in four months to

bounty jumpers," and that "only two hundred thousand of the half million called out in July, 1864, have reached the field." On April 15th the refrain is "Praise God from whom all blessings flow." The cry is, moreover, "stop the draft." There are very bitter flings at Jefferson Davis in a burlesque proclamation.

The National Bereavement and Plots—Then deep as the tragedy had been before a deeper tragedy arose in the offing. A change passed over the face of the waters; the people heard the news and stood, stunned beyond the power of speech. We find the general stupefaction crystallized in the "Gazette," the consistent enemy of the simplest and most intrepid of Presidents. "The National Bereavement" is the heading it places over the expression of its bitter regret. Lincoln had fallen under the hand of a Southern assassin. The "Gazette" breaks voice to say: "The darkest crime that ever occurred in the history of this nation has been committed, and forever after will leave a foul blot on its pages . . . . Party lines are obliterated in the presence of the nation's dead . . . He has been removed when we least could afford to lose him . . . . Our beloved President . . . . His well-known kindness of heart. . ." The editor admits that it "might have been a wise move at the beginning of the war or during the darker days of the struggle;" but regrets it as being so "foolish and useless" at the moment when it occurred. He ends up by pleading for the extension of mercy to the defeated South.

There was considerable excitement at the close of the hostilities when everyone, like the editor of the "Gazette," was endeavoring to have his fling at the fallen commander of the Southern forces, Jefferson Davis, over talk which had spread concerning a plot to blow up Croton Dam, which was alleged to have been seriously considered in Canada under the orders of the notorious Jake Thompson. A man who claimed to be a government agent, and who passed by the aliases of James Watson Wallace and Sanford Conover, in testimony given at Washington, swore that he had had conversation with the aforesaid Jake in January, 1865, concerning this and other plots. Later about the middle of the year, in the "Toronto Globe," appeared a letter from this same Wallace or Conover, in which he, on March 20th of that year, made to Thompson the proposition to have the dam destroyed on the ground that "one of my aunts, a Virginia lady, an enemy of everything Yankee, owns the land on which the dam is built, and her residence and out-buildings are only a few rods from the abutments of the work." The alleged government spy went on to say: "This will afford you some idea of the facilities we have at command to accomplish our object. The necessary men for the business are engaged." The letter appeared to be genuine and appeared to be intended as a decoy to get

Thompson to answer explicitly that he approved such a scheme. Instead of this the man who took him the letter swore that he said: "Is the man mad? Is he a fool?", and pooh-poohed the whole proposition. The scheme, as hatched by the United States detective, was an ingenious plan to lead Thompson to think that the project of blowing up the Croton Dam was feasible. But beyond that, as a serious undertaking, it never had any existence, outside the brain of the detective.

Societies Giving Succor—Reference has already been made to the manner in which in the valley of the Bronx and the adjoining country the different parties joined in the effort to avert suffering from the families of the companies that went to the front in the beginning of the Civil War. The local communities everywhere in the county of Westchester as elsewhere were energetic in the good work. From the New York "Herald" of August 17, 1861, we learn that the town of Bedford held a fair on the sixteenth of that month, under the auspices of the Ladies of Katonah, in which Judge Robertson auctioned off the goods, and read a letter from Mrs. Lincoln, stating that she had presented the "Havelocks" sent from Katonah to the Second, Ninth, Twenty-seventh and Tammany Regiments, and that they had been received "thankfully and with cheers." The town of Cortlandt has preserved the names of the members of the first society raised in that town for the purpose of giving succor. This was on April 27, 1861. The officers of this society, which was denominated the "Soldiers Relief Association," were: President, Mrs. Daniel Janes; Secretary, Miss Amelia B. Mills; Treasurer, Miss Sarah Taylor. The committee to raise funds was: Mrs. John B. Mills, Mrs. Conrad Quin, Mrs. Edward Mills, Mrs. Joseph Mason, Misses Amanda Wright and Augusta Taylor. This association had weekly meetings throughout the war, sent out large supplies of lint, bandages, clothing and supplies for the Sanitary and Christian Commissions, and otherwise did noble work, being one of those bands of noble women in the Northern States who, together managed to raise the sum of seventeen millions of dollars by strictly voluntary contributions, for those great charitable societies.

The records of the work of aid at Port Chester show that the first fervor there, as elsewhere, required stimulation to keep it at a useful level. The first week's work left the treasurer a balance of over two hundred dollars to distribute; but the next, in spite of new contributions, the fund sank to eighty dollars, and the conductors of the work appear to have had to stir themselves to get further subscriptions. By June 4th the balance rose to a hundred and eighty dollars; and on June 8th S. K. Satterlee appears to have taken up the business of collecting, for he brought in two hundred and six dollars in a lump, all of which was paid on the same day for the families of soldiers, or to the military

committee for the expenses of recruiting. The balance sank by July 7th to seventeen dollars and ninety cents, the payments being made in small sums to wives or parents of soldiers, on a weekly allowance, scaled according to the number of mouths to feed. The low state of the fund appears to have stirred the committee to work again raising subscriptions, for on the eighth the balance rose to two hundred dollars, brought in by the members of the committee. During the rest of the month the debit side of the treasurer's cash account was empty, while the drafts for families were unceasing until July 20th, from which date to the twenty-third there was a stream of subscriptions, testifying tc the manner in which the news of the disaster at Bull Run on July 21st had affected the neighborhood. The end of the month left the balance, in spite of the usual drafts, $333.63, which was increased, on August 11th, by some other subscriptions. The givers in the ensuing weeks were few, while the wives of the soldiers on the other side of the page increased in number as the weeks went on and the war progressed. By September 23rd the balance sank to sixty-six dollars. All the efforts of the committee to increase the subscriptions seem to have been useless, for the debit side of the "cash" continued to grow smaller until by October 5, 1861, it sank to its lowest point during the war, seven dollars and eighty-nine cents. This condition of things excited the committee to redoubled exertions and they succeeded in raising a hundred and fifty dollars the next day; but by the end of the month, in spite of this amount and two hundred dollars more, the balance on hand was only twenty dollars and forty-nine cents.

It was seen, however, that the character of the work did not measure up to the requirements that were inevitably growing. By the end of the year the fact was revealed that the members had raised by voluntary subscription the sum of $3,289.25, and had expended for relief all but about seventy dollars of that amount, in sums ranging from three to seven dollars a week. During the early months of 1862 the amounts contributed for the relief increased notably, every member of the committee seeming to have been hard at work, while other people were inspired by them to coöperate in their personal efforts, so that the balance never fell below a hundred dollars, and was generally nearer two hundred, in spite of increasing appeals for help from other quarters. At the close of the voluntary period, when the system of helping the families of volunteers gave way to the juster and more practical method of relief by town and county bonds, the record shows that there had been raised $4,403.75, of which the balance remaining on hand, when the first bonds were received, was $218.53.

The time came when that system of relief was to give way to another method. On September 1, 1862, arrived the first town bonds and were

given into the hands of the committee; and with them arrived also the first tokens of the "bounty system," which is considered by many to have done more in the direction of depreciating the name of the American soldier than anything else that occurred in the course of the war. This change of system introduces the subject of the cost of the war to the neighborhood and to Westchester County in general, made necessary by the unconcealed antagonism of a considerable part of the population to partaking in a war from which the romance had departed and where nothing remained but the grim reality of death. The work of the Union Defence Committees, therefore, gave way to that of the "Ladies Aid Societies" and the "Councils" of the Sanitary and Christian Commissions, whose sphere of action was different. A report of one of the councils, dated July 27, 1865, after the return of most of the volunteers, gives an idea of what that sphere of action was:

This Association commenced its labors on August 27, 1861, just four years and three months ago. Since that period they have received $3,766.88 from donations, festivals, church collections, lectures, etc., and the Sanitary Commission Sociables. Those sociables sent in $129 by their treasurer, Miss Hubbell. They have expended $3,378.09, leaving a surplus of $388.79. It must be remembered that nearly an equal amount has been given in garments, materials and hospital stores, and during the past year, also, the Christian Commission has had in active operation a Society in this village, sending constantly to the front supplies of clothing and hospital stores. Taking all into consideration, Sing Sing has great reason for congratulation that the cry for help fell not on unheeding ears, and that her children have not been weary of well-doing. The number of garments sent away exceed 9,000. Several pieces of muslin were sent away by the Woman's Central Association to be made up; and when after battles the calls were urgent, efficient help was rendered by the ladies of New Castle, Pine's Ridge, and Pleasantville. It would occupy too much time and space to thank all who have aided in this noble work, but the managers must express their grateful obligations to the clergy of the village for their coöperation and hearty good will, and also to the editors of the two papers who have constantly published all their reports and notices free of expense. They also desired heartily to thank Messrs. Tallcot and Burrhus for the use of the rooms for several years. Since the commencement of this society three active and useful managers—Mrs. Neff, Mrs. Weston, and Mrs. Truesdell—have entered into their rest. Their associates gratefully recall their labors and pleasant companionship... While unfeignedly grateful to their Heavenly Father that war has ended and peace dwells again in the land, it is with saddened hearts that the managers recall the thought that they will never again meet as a Soldiers' Aid Society. The good motive for labor, which united them and caused so close a bond, has passed away. The many pleasant and painful associations are things of the past. United in our common Christian work, we can never in after days forget the bond of union that kept us together during four years of the war.

The Bounty Bonds—The first burden which was taken by the various local communities during the war came in the shape of bonds issued by Boards of Supervisors under the provisions of an act passed in the Legislature on March 1, 1862, "to relieve the families of volunteers

in the field." The amount issued in Westchester County was fifty thousand dollars, which was placed in bonds of varying amounts, bearing seven per cent interest; issued to the supervisors of the different towns for sale, the proceeds to be expended in relief to the families, in much the same manner as that adopted by the Port Chester Volunteer Committee. The amounts issued to the different towns varied from twenty-five hundred dollars, or less, to ten thousand, according to population. The last of these bonds was paid off in the year 1867.

After this date the county took no further action, in regard to the war, until July 27, 1864, when in consequence of the drafts, the increasing claims of the bounty jumpers and the difficulty the towns found in floating their bounty bonds, the burden was assumed by the county, as it had been in the relief of volunteers in 1862. The sum of five hundred and sixty-five thousand dollars was raised in county bonds; distributed by the supervisors of the towns, as in the case of the first set of relief bonds, the rate of interest being seven per cent.; the principle payable in periods ranging from twelve to sixteen years. The first hundred of these bonds was cancelled at the end of the year 1876, and the last sixty-two in April, 1881. The amount raised in all went to answer a single call for troops; and when the next one came the State was obliged to step in to help the towns, which actually made money on the difference between the bounties they paid and the amount awarded them by the State. The town of Cortlandt, then one of the largest in Westchester County, raised, to take an example, in the year 1862, $20,000 for bounties, of which $16,795 was expended, and 324 men sent out—an excess of 13 over the town quota. In October, 1863, the town raised $14,000 more, besides sums paid by substitutes, and sent out its quota of 116 men. In February, 1864, it raised $35,000 to send out 73 men. In March, 1864, $24,000 was used to send out 49 men, with $5,000 more, paid by drafted men for substitutes. In July, 1864, the town received from the county bonds, already mentioned, $107,800; raised $15,375 in town bonds; assessed the drafted men in the sum of $10,595, with a further sum of $30,175, which the drafted men themselves paid, making their own bargains, and thus managed to fill the town quota of 219 men. The total cost of this draft is estimated at $164,500 or thereabout. On the last call, made after the reëlection of Lincoln, 100 men were furnished at a cost of $60,000, but the town received from the State an amount sufficient to leave it a gainer of about $7,000, that being the excess of the State money furnished for bounties. The history of all the towns, during the war, shows how, as the needs of the contest slowly increased, what had been left at first to individual patriotism was gradually shifted, first on the towns, then on the county, and finally on the State.

The great expenditure in comparison with the number of men actually sent to the front is also instructive in the way in which the political disturbances that marked the northern States during the war increased the cost and made the victory more difficult of achievement. The price of substitutes steadily rose as the election of 1864 approached, while the last draft, after the contest was settled, was effected without difficulty, and left some of the towns actual gainers by the affair. The substitutes moreover, obtained at a cost of from five to six hundred dollars a man, seldom went to the front at all, but remained at home, breeding that odious class denominated "bounty jumpers," who drifted from regiment to regiment, and from broker to broker, until the figures of men enlisted into the United States service, must probably be diminished by one third, if not one half, to allow for the number of reënlistments and desertions. A summary of the figures in the town of Cortlandt shows that it cost to send out each man who was enlisted, as follows: in 1861, nothing; in 1862, $51.82 per man; in 1863, $120.70 per man, from the town, with a probable hundred more from each drafted man for a substitute; in 1864, an average of $519.60 per man, before election; and nothing for the last draft, in which the cost fell on the State, and the towns were gainers to the extent of about $70 per man enlisted.

Return of the Volunteers—Following the day on which General Lee surrendered his army at Appomattox Court House the thoughts of the volunteers in the field were turned, with a unanimity seldom seen in the history of war, towards the homes they had left so readily at the beginning of the conflict at the call of their country. The impatience became so great, after the final collapse of the Rebellion, when Johnston and Kirby Smith had surrendered, that the men in the field could hardly be kept by the colors, for the necessary purposes of police; breaking out into open mutiny in some instances, when it was proposed to put them into the regular army; indignantly spurning the idea that they were professional soldiers at all; demanding when their work had been done that they should be discharged and sent home as soon as possible.

The regiments and organizations from the neighborhood of The Bronx and from Westchester County in general were in the same category as the rest and their history to the time they returned home is revealed by the official records of the State. Company B, of the Seventeenth Regiment, the banner company of the county, from Port Chester, served its term of two years, and was mustered out on June 3, 1863, the recruits, enlisted for three years after the company was in the field, being transferred to the Twelfth Regiment, New York Volunteers. This regiment, being also a two years' organization, had already been mustered out; but the recruits for three years, with a part of the

Twelfth New York Militia, with which it had been consolidated February 3, 1862, were formed into a battalion, which, in its turn, was mustered into the Fifth New York Veteran Volunteers on June 2, 1864. The whole force remained in the service till finally mustered out on August 21, 1865. The next organization in rank was that part of the Fourth New York Cavalry recruited at Yonkers by Captain Parnell. On the expiration of the original term of service the regiment was mustered out and the reënlisted men, with the later recruits, consolidated with the Ninth New York Cavalry, on February 27, 1863, under the name of Companies B, E, and L, of that regiment; with which it remained to the close of the war, being mustered out on July 17, 1863. The Fifth Battery Light Artillery, remarkable as being the only organization in which the name of a Mount Vernon man appears as having been an original member, was retained in the service till July 6, 1865, when it was also mustered out. The First Regiment Mounted Rifles was consolidated with the Third New York Cavalry on July 21, 1865, the whole force being known as the Fourth Provisional New York Cavalry. This regiment remained in the service till finally mustered out on November 29, 1865. The Sixth Heavy Artillery, being a three years' regiment, was mustered out on June 25, 1865; but the reënlisted veterans and the recruits whose terms were not yet out were formed into a battalion of four companies. The remaining members of the Tenth and Thirteenth Regiments of Artillery, in the same condition, were added to the Sixth two days later; and the whole force remained in service until August 24, 1865, when they were finally mustered out. The Sixteenth (Sprague Light) Cavalry closed the history of the connection of the neighborhood of The Bronx and Westchester County generally with the war. This force was consolidated with the Thirteenth New York Cavalry on June 23, 1865, the consolidated regiment being known as the Third Provisional New York Cavalry, under which name it was mustered out on September 21, 1865.

There were few official records kept of the names of men, bona fide residents of the different towns in Westchester County, who enlisted and died in the service. In some towns the patriotism of the people in charge secured such a record. In others no such records were made. The town of Cortlandt kept such a record. The town of Yorktown also preserved a partial list, showing that of the Sixth Heavy Artillery. Had there been a little more forethought in the different localities of the county, concerning the conduct of its citizens in the course of the war posterity would have been put in possession of records which it would have gratefully preserved. It would appear that the unfortunate differences that existed in the neighborhood over the righteousness of the war militated against the records being properly kept. Save by the

families of those who actually went to the front but little interest appears to have been taken by any one in the accomplishments of the Union armies and as a result of the apathy the right kind of officials were not elected and local pride was not cultivated. Following the close of the Civil War there was a movement in the establishment of Grand Army Posts at different places to collect the records in something like a reliable form. The graves of Union volunteers began to be decorated annually, but these did not represent in any proper proportion the men who went into service from the neighborhood of The Bronx and from Westchester County generally, but rather those who settled in the neighborhood after the war.

The Drafted Men—The records of the draft in Westchester County, as far as regards the names of the men drafted, are generally missing, though the bonds necessary to save them from going to the front remained, to be finally extinguished, in 1881. In the town of Eastchester, F. Whittaker, however, succeeded in securing a copy of the names of the men drafted, and the prices paid for substitutes. It embraces the calls for July, 1864, and the last call in December of the same year. Stephen Bogart was supervisor for that year, and his name appears among the list of drafted men. The numbers drawn by the provost marshal appears to have been taken at random over the county of Westchester, for they are not continuous. The first man caught in Eastchester was No. 964, William M. Harward, while the highest number was 3,241. There were two hundred and thirteen men drawn in the town altogether. Some took the commutation of three hundred dollars, allowed by the State, and furnished their own substitutes, in the best way they knew how. Others furnished the substitutes at a definite cost; but the greater part let the town military committee do all the work, through the bounty brokers, who settled the whole business. Of the whole two hundred and thirteen, only two entered the service, taking the bounty money themselves.

The following men were paid the commutation of three hundred dollars, under the Conscription Act, and made their own bargains with substitutes, at their own risk:

William Holdredge, James Cordial, William Searing, Charles Kane, John L. Brown, Ferdinand Holm, Michel Donohue, Jacob Grubb, Jacob Reinhardt, Christian Geissman, Patrick Scott, John Mullaly, Samuel B. Lyons, John Muller, Otto Weigand, John Hinz, Charles Bock, Stephen Bogart, Thomas McConnel, John Stinard, William Gordon, George Robinson, William Hagemeyer, Theodore Holly, Daniel Kane, Samuel Bertine, Ferdinand Haag, William Doolittle, William Tribent, Cornell Valentine, John Kennedy, Abram M. Bennett, Philip Haag, Thomas Dooling, Thomas Donaldson, Frances Schleicher, Philip Flood, William Hickey, William B. Jones, William Deverman, Walter

H. Manning, John Pugmire, Thomas Barker, Frederick Von Garrell, Thomas Hunt and Louis Behr.

The following men in Eastchester furnished their own substitutes at a cost of four hundred dollars: Charles Leland, Aaron R. Haight, Isaac Richards, A. M. Hungerford, George Ferris, Samuel Horton, Robert Hall, Gideon Mead, Warren Ackerman, Timothy Bennett, Samuel Burpo, W. H. Hustis, Constantine Weiss, Edgar Schiefflein, John Boda, Alexander Masterton, Henry A. Bowerman, James Hay, Aaron M. Diederer, John M. Masterton, B. F. Bowerman, S. Purdy Carton, David Dunham, Robert M. Masterton, S. Moore, George King, Thomas W. Atkinson, Edward Kendrick, John Ostrander, O. L. Underhill.

The following men in Eastchester had substitutes furnished by the town at an expense of four hundred and twenty dollars: William M. Harward, Frederick Knolling, John T. Underhill, Samuel Trelese, Henry Hargrave, John Casey, Frederick Sargent, Henry Lins, John W. Coburn, John S. Yorke, M. B. Valentine, Christopher Wintler, John W. Coombs, Edward Hoole, John A. Bowerman.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at a cost of four hundred and twenty-five dollars: John Duffy, William Preston, James Joy, August Donges.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at a cost of four hundred and ten dollars: Patrick Garvin, Andrew Kapp, James Waddock, Andrew Clark.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at a cost of four hundred dollars: Timothy Rain, Lawrence Daniels, Nicholas Bowden, Sanford Fleming, Henry Grant.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at a cost of four hundred and forty-five dollars: Carl Moser, E. A. Phelps.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at an expense of four hundred and fifty dollars: William Traband, Bernard Hufnagel, Lawrence Clemens, William E. Howe, William Purcells, Charles V. Morgan, Frederick Boda, John King, G. W. L. Underhill, Isaac Secor, Joseph D. Disbrow, Samuel B. Wiley, Stephen Higgins.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at an expense of four hundred and seventy dollars: Josiah Zabriskie, William H. Oakley.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at an expense of four hundred and seventy-five dollars: James Murray, William P. Sleight.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at a cost of four hundred and ninety-five dollars: John Donlin, Lawrence Horton.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at a cost of five hundred dollars: Walter B. Comstock, Isaac Weeks, John Coyle,

Henry Linderman, John Mulloy, William Rickert, Theodore Horr, John Farley, James Crottey, Henry Lohman, Michael Jackson, Lewis Gale, George P. Sinn, Anthony Beebe.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at an expense of five hundred and twenty dollars: Tillman Holly, John Knapp.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at an expense of five hundred and ninety dollars: Charles Lamar, Ernest Erbert, William Murphy, Jacob Putney, John Williams, David Jones, Joaquin Jones, Charles E. Manning, William Brown, George Francis, Patrick McNulty, John Starr, John P. Minnich, Edward Dill, Thomas Davis, John A. Hutchinson, Hugh Callahan, Philip H. Harsinger, Henry Hamill, Carey P. Poplin, John Rigby, Tobias Akers, John Jolly, Charles Stewart, Michael Fanning, Timothy G. Lumb, George W. Dullion, John West, John Smith, Frederick Kline, James Cameron, Lorenzo Cavaglio, Wolsley Baxter, Theodore Handy, David Bowen, James Hughes, James Fisher, John Nichols, and Morris Earle.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at an expense of seven hundred and fifty dollars: John F. Jarvis, Joseph Harper, Amos Cheney, Tim Crowley, Charles Helwig.

The following men had substitutes furnished by the town at a cost of eight hundred dollars: Francis Seber, Sanford Hallock, John G. Satterlee, Michael Quinlan, Charles Weeks, William H. Duff, George H. Archer, Joseph S. Gregory, Darius Lyon, Joseph Harper (second call), Oliver R. King, D. Lamoureaux, Henry Skidmore, S. G. Vredenburg, David Quackinbush, Christian Stark.

The following had a substitute furnished by the town at an expense of eight hundred and twenty dollars: Michael McCormick.

The following men were drafted and entered the service, receiving the sums set opposite their names: Edward Barnum, $450.00; Christian Knapp, $310.00.

The only item in the account which is perplexing is one which says that "one recruit" was furnished under the second call for five hundred and ninety dollars, this being probably at a time when the draft was nearly over and matters carelessly managed.

The Grand Army Posts—It has been considered that an important part of the history of the Civil War in its relation to the neighborhood of The Bronx and to Westchester County in general deals with the account of the "Grand Army of the Republic" insofar as it is included in the history of the county.

An accounting made twenty years after the close of the war showed that there were five hundred and forty-one posts in the State of New York, with an average of fifty members or over. Of these the county of Westchester counted as her own the following: Post Kitching, No.

60, of Yonkers; Post Vosbrugh, No. 95, of Peekskill; Post Powell, No. 117, of Sing Sing; Post McKiel, No. 120, of Katonah; Post Morell, No. 144, of Sing Sing; Post Stewart Hart, No. 169, of Mount Kisco; Post Farnsworth, No. 170, of Mount Vernon; Post H. B. Hidden, No. 330, of City Island; Post Charles Lawrence, No. 378, of Port Chester; Post Cromwell, No. 466, of White Plains; Post W. B. Burnett, No. 496, of Yonkers; making a total of twelve posts at that time.

The H. B. Hidden Post, No. 330, of City Island, was organized by Comrade James H. Jenkins, of Farnsworth Post, on January 27, 1883. The charter members were: George E. Pinckney, first lieutenant, 131st New York; Oswald Bergen, U. S. S. "Santee"; Joseph H. Glazier, 84th New York; William Sconsborough, U. S. S. "Wissahickon"; Henry Bahre, 25th New York; Theodore Bishop, U. S. S. "San Jacinto"; Eugene Reed, 32nd "Maine"; S. T. Graham, U. S. N.; William B. Miller, 5th New York; George W. Banta, 176th New York; and Jerome Bell, 1st New York Cavalry. Following the organization the following members were in the next year mustered into the post: Richard Sherwood, 135th New York; E. H. Gurney, 8th New York Cavalry; John S. Secord, 6th New York H. Art.; William McGloin, U. S. S. "Vincennes"; Michael Egan, 4th New York; John McNamara, 1st New York M. Rifles; Robert Brown, Ellsworth Zouaves; Thomas McCarty, 1st New York Cavalry.

The Cromwell Post, No. 466, of White Plains was organized on March 19, 1884, by Comrade James H. Jenkins, of Farnsworth Post. The charter members were Valentine M. Hodgson, Edward B. Long, John C. Verplanck, George W. Brown, Edward W. Bogart, Henry I. Williams, Berlin K. Palmer, David P. Barnes, George W. Coventry, James S. Snedeker, Richard Roach, Charles Whiston, and George Lewis.

Horatio Seymour Post, No. 590, of Yonkers, was mustered in at Yonkers on Tuesday, June 29, 1886, by Comrade John C. Shotts, of Kitching Post, with the following membership:

Commander, Frederick Shonnard, major, 6th N. Y. H. A.; Senior Vice-Commander, Fisher A. Baker, lieutenant-colonel, 18th Mass. Vol.; Junior Vice-Commander, Edward J. Maxwell, first lieutenant, 63rd N. Y. Vol.; Surgeon: Dr. Galuska B. Balch, assistant surgeon, 2nd N. Y. Vet. Cavalry; Chaplain: John Forsyth; Officer of the Day: James V. Lawrence; brevet-major, Gen. Staff; Officer of the Guard: Augustus W. Nichol; Quartermaster: William Welsh, captain, 68th N. Y. Vol. (by proxy of Comrade Matt Ellis, formerly of Kitching Post); Adjutant: James F. Farrell, captain, 5th N. Y. Art.; Sergeant-Major: George W. Farnum, corporal, 23rd Conn. Vol.; Quartermaster-Sergeant: Thomas Ewing; brevet major-general, Army of the Frontier.

Riker's Island, lying towards the mouth of Flushing Bay, Long Is-

land, was used during the Civil War by the United States Government for the encampment and drilling of recruits, and also for hospital purposes, as well as other parts of what is now the territory of The Bronx. Franz Sigel, or Cedar Park, as it was originally called, derives its later name from General Franz Sigel, a conspicuous leader in the political disturbances in Germany in 1848, who came to this country in consequence of the failure of the movement for popular rights and settled in the West. During the Civil War he did good service for the Union, and during the latter part of his life he lived in the borough of The Bronx, not far from Cedar Park. He died in 1902 and in order to preserve his memory, the Board of Aldermen changed the name of Cedar to Franz Sigel. The West Farms Soldiers' Monument was erected by the subscriptions of a few patriotic citizens, in the West Farms Cemetery, adjoining the graveyard of the old Presbyterian Church. A Mrs. Cunningham, the widow of a soldier, was the first to draw attention to the neglected and desecrated graves of a number of soldiers, who were buried there. She was passing the graveyard when the street was being widened and saw a number of bones thrown into a cart by the laborers. An examination of one of the grass-covered and decrepit tombstones showed that it was over the grave of "William J. Rasberry, Captain Co. C, 6th Heavy Artillery, killed October 19, 1864, at Cedar Creek, while leading his men up the hill." Other graves were found, and the matter of erecting a suitable monument was taken up by the committee of which Captain Charles Baxter was chairman. The monument was erected in the fall of 1909, and was dedicated with appropriate ceremonies on May 29, 1910. The remains of eleven soldiers, two of them of the War of 1812, are within the plot near the monument. Three brass howitzers are used for ornamental purposes, and a flag is kept flying from the staff erected for the purpose.

Volunteers and Copperheads in Draft Riots—Venerable men living in The Bronx today recall the disturbances to which what is now the borough was subjected, by the acute differences of opinion which prevailed there. Some of the citizens on the banks of the Harlem volunteered for the defence of the Union, some remained passive, and others were "Copperheads" of the usual kind. Apart from the individual soldiers who enlisted in various regiments and companies there was the 6th Artillery, Company C, which was wholly, and Company K, which was partially, recruited at West Farms. Company H was recruited in Morrisania. The Fifth Infantry (Duryea's Zouaves), Company F, partially, was recruited in Fordham; the 17th Infantry, Company C, was recruited in Morrisania. The 176th Infantry (Ironsides) Company G, was recruited in Pelham. Mobs during the disturbances visited the draft offices at Morrisania and West Farms and destroyed the lists. At a meeting in the town hall at Tremont

at which a large crowd was present John B. Haskin and P. C. Talman managed the mass of excited men with diplomacy, mollifying them with the assertion that they were right in their resistance to the draft and the government wrong in enforcing it, and then appealing to their sense of self-respect and order. The ground of the argument used was that the draft was unconstitutional and that the Federal Government overstepped its right in invading the municipal rights of a sovereign State before the courts of that State had decided whether a Federal Act was constitutional or not—in fact, using the old idea of nullification. The meeting adjourned after the appointment of a committee of seven citizens "to wait on Moses G. Sheard, Esq., Federal provost-marshal of the district, to insist that the draft be stopped till the State court could decide whether it was constitutional." The reign of terror that had existed for two days thus came to an end as this move appeared to satisfy the leaders of the crowd. It is questionable, as at Mount Vernon and in New York City, whether it would have done so if the news had not come the next day that the troops were returning from Gettysburg, and that those that had already arrived had come in contact with the mob. Under the circumstances the leaders of the working men involved came to the conclusion that peaceable means would serve their cause better than violence, and order throughout The Bronx territory was once more restored. So events moved themselves in the region of the Harlem at that critical time when the territory which later became organized as the borough of The Bronx formed an indefinite area that partook alike of the wash of occurrences in Westchester County and in New York City.

CHAPTER XI

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR

The Spanish-American War took place at a date a year or two after the eastern part of The Bronx was annexed by New York City and about the time when the charter of the Greater New York was going into effect, and the whole annexed section north of the Harlem River was becoming officially known as The Borough of The Bronx. The participation of the borough in the war became therefore merely an element of the participation of New York City as well as of New York State. There were a good many Bronx men in the First, Second and Third Regiments of the New York Volunteers, in the Sixty-ninth Regiment, and in the Seventy-first Regiment. At that time The Bronx had not made the phenomenal gains in population which later were to characterize its progress. The density of the population a quarter of a century ago was nothing like what it is today. But the new borough had a considerable number of residents, and those eligible among them responded to the call for volunteers with a spirit not inferior to that of any other borough of the greater city.

The origin and progress of the war belongs to the history of the United States. After a consideration of the conditions in Cuba, which had existed in the island for a century and had resulted in violations of the laws of humanity and in disregard of the rights of American citizens, the United States determined to intervene. The Cuban uprising of 1895 had been suppressed with severity by Spain. Devastation, famine and death were the lot of the natives, and the lives and property of foreigners were not safeguarded. On April 6, 1896, Secretary of State Richard Olney offered in rather vague terms the friendly offices of the United States to save Cuba from "absolute impoverishment" and to ameliorate the condition of foreigners in that country. Spain declined, and President Cleveland in his annual message to Congress in December, 1896, spoke of "higher obligations" than those due to Spain, which would devolve upon the United States if Spain should be unable to cope with conditions. In the early part of the McKinley administration Congress appropriated $50,000 for Cuban relief. Sagasta, the new Prime Minister of Spain, perceiving the trend of affairs, recalled Captain-General Weyler and sent out General Blanco in his stead. Spain promised to establish civil order in Cuba and to give it local autonomy when the American Minister to Spain, Stewart L. Woodford, announced that his country could not view with indifference indefinite

prolongation of existing conditions. In the meantime the United States Government began to strengthen its naval forces. Relations became further strained when a letter written by the Spanish minister criticising President McKinley was stolen from the mails and published. His resignation followed the disavowal of any knowledge of the affair by the Spanish authorities. The critical point was reached when the United States battleship "Maine" was blown up on the evening of February 15, 1898, in Havana harbor with a loss of two hundred and sixty-six men. Boards of investigation were appointed by both countries. The American commission reported that the catastrophe was due to the explosion of a submarine mine. This was supported by an investigation in 1911. On March 8, Congress appropriated $50,000,000 for national defense, and on March 11 the War Department began mobilization of the regular army. President McKinley had again tendered the good offices of the United States before the report of the investigating committee, but not satisfied with Spain's reply, determined to lay the whole matter before Congress. In anticipation of war, American citizens left Cuba, the Cuban Junta demanded recognition before interference, and Spain declared a general truce on April 10. In his message (April 11) President McKinley described the situation, declaring intervention necessary, advising against recognition of the Cuban government, and requesting Congress to take action. Eight days later Congress declared the people of Cuba free and independent, demanded the surrender of all Spanish authority over the island, and empowered and directed the President to enforce this recognition by the army and navy. The President signed this ultimatum on April 20 and gave Spain until the 23rd to make satisfactory reply. The Spanish Minister almost immediately demanded his passports, and the American Minister was handed his at Madrid. Formal declarations of war were issued by Spain and the United States on April 24 and 25 respectively.

Course of the War—The first naval action occurred on April 27, when Captain W. T. Sampson (in charge of the blockading squadron, Cuban north coast) bombarded Matanzas. Spain sent a fleet to Cuban waters and had another in Philippine waters. Commander George Dewey, who was at Hongkong, was ordered on April 25th to "proceed to the Philippine Islands; commence operations at once against the Spanish fleet; capture vessels or destroy." On April 30, under cover of the darkness, he entered Manila harbor with nine vessels, a hundred and thirty-one guns, and sixteen hundred and seventy-eight men. The next morning he attacked Admiral Montojo, whose ten more or less helpless vessels, carrying one hundred and twenty guns and seventeen hundred and ninety-six men lay at anchor in Cavite Bay. After a four-hour fight he destroyed the enemy's fleet and silenced the local fortifi-

cations with a loss of only six wounded. The whereabouts of the Spanish fleet in Cuban waters, under the command of Cervera, puzzled the Americans for some time until it was discovered in Santiago Bay. The harbor was rigorously blockaded by Admiral (then Captain) Sampson. A daring attempt by Lieutenant R. F. Hobson to close the harbor channel by the sinking of the collier "Merrimac" was unsuccessful. On Sunday morning, July 3, Cervera's ships emerged. The United States fleet immediately pursued and in four hours destroyed or drove ashore the six Spanish ships. The Spanish losses were about three hundred and fifty killed and seventeen hundred officers and men captured. The Americans lost one man and had ten wounded.

President McKinley had issued a call for 125,000 volunteers on April 23, 1898, and a second call for 75,000 more on May 25. Spain had about 197,000 men in Cuba, of whom 155,000 were regulars. On June 13, General W. R. Shafter, U. S. V., left Tampa, Florida, with eight hundred and fifteen officers and 16,072 men, composed almost entirely of regulars. His instructions were: "Go with your forces to capture garrison at Santiago and assist in capturing harbor and fleet." He landed on June 20 at Daiguiri, the Spaniards withdrawing to their entrenchments near Santiago, protected by barbed-wire entanglements. General Joseph Wheeler dislodged the Spanish troops at Las Guasimas after a sharp engagement in which he lost sixty-eight men, killed and wounded, the Spanish loss being twenty-eight. On July 1st, the United States troops, with the aid of Cubans, under General Garcia, began the general assault on the Spanish positions. Two really separate actions were fought, El Caney and San Juan.

San Juan Hill was captured at 1.30 P. M.; El Caney carried by storm at 4.30. On July 3, General Shafter notified the Spanish commander, Toral, that unless he surrendered by the morning of the fourth, the city would be shelled. The truce which followed was ended on the tenth and the hostilities, under the form of a siege, resumed. On the sixteenth articles of capitulation were signed. All forces, material, and territory of the District of Santiago were to be surrendered and all Spanish soldiers to be transported to Spain. The Spanish losses are not accurately known; those of the Americans were 1,156. On July 25, General Nelson A. Miles, U. S. A., landed on the island of Porto Rico. His skillfully conducted campaign was terminated on August 13 by the news that an armistice had been concluded. On August 13, Admiral Dewey and General Wesley Merritt made a combined attack on the city of Manila, which surrendered. Final capitulation was concluded on August 14. About 13,000 Spanish soldiers yielded to the Americans, who had lost only five killed and forty-three wounded.

Spain sought peace through the French Ambassador late in July. On August 12, the peace protocol and preliminary arrangements were con-

cluded. The treaty was signed on December 10 in Paris; by this Spain withdrew from Cuba and ceded Porto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines to the United States, which in return agreed to pay her $20,000,000 and to yield temporary commercial privileges in the Philippines. The political status of the inhabitants of the new possessions was to be determined by the new government. During the war a high death rate in camps brought out charges of maladministration against the War Department.

There were Bronx men in all the five regiments which went from New York in the Spanish-American War, and a note or two regarding each of them will be in order.

First New York Volunteers—The field of operations of the First Regiment, Infantry, New York Volunteers, was in Honolulu. In accordance with Section I, General Orders No. 8, General Headquarters, S. N. Y., dated A. G. O. Albany, April 27, 1898, the Commanding Officer of the Third Brigade, N. G., Brigadier-General Robert Shaw Oliver, ordered to organize two regiments from organizations of his brigade, formed one of these two regiments of the Tenth, Twelfth and Seventeenth battalions and the Forty-fourth Separate Company of his brigade, and designated it the "First Regiment, National Guard, composed of organizations of the Third Brigade." The regiment thus organized consisted then of Companies A, B, C, and D of the Tenth Battalion, the 5th, 14th, 16th and 24th Separate Companies of the 12th Battalion, the 3d, 20th and 33d Separate Companies of the 17th Battalion and the 44th Separate Company. It appearing that the 16th Separate Company would find it difficult to recruit the required number of men, it was relieved and replaced by the 15th Separate Company. General Thomas H. Barber and Major H. T. Stacpole were appointed colonel and lieutenant-colonel of this regiment. The organizations of which this regiment was composed left their home stations and went to Camp Black at Hempstead Plains, Long Island, remaining there till June 11, 1898. While at its garrisons the regiment received 301 recruits.

The regiment was later ordered to Honolulu, and Colonel Barber, with other officers, sailed from San Francisco on the "St. Paul" to Honolulu to select a camp for the regiment there, and to choose a site for the New Hawaiian Post. They arrived on August 14th and established a temporary camp upon the grounds of the race track, Kapiolani Park, about five miles from Honolulu. Three vessels, the "Mariposa," the "Alliance" and the "Sandia," brought the regiment to the island, and the camp was named "Camp McKinley." On August 12th Colonel Barber, with other officers, represented the army at the annexation ceremonies of transfer of the Hawaiian Islands to the United States. Owing to the prevalence of malarial and typhoid fever in the command it was

deemed advisable to move the regiment to a camp more remote from the unsanitary conditions of and in the immediate vicinity of Honolulu. Officers and men were given leave of absence and furlough until February 26, 1899, when the regiment was finally mustered out of the service of the United States.

Second Regiment, New York Volunteers—On May 2, 1898, the Thirteenth, Fourteenth and Fifteenth Battalions of the Third Brigade of the National Guard proceeded with such of their enlisted men as were willing to serve for two years in the Volunteer Army of the United States, from their home stations to Hempstead Plains, where a camp of mobilization was to be established. These battalions were to be formed into a regiment to be known as the Second New York Volunteers, under command of Captain E. E. Hardin, of the Seventh United States Infantry, who was to receive a commission as Colonel of Volunteers. Major James H. Lloyd of the Thirteenth Battalion was designated as lieutenant-colonel. Each battalion proceeded by a special train to its destination and all arrived between three and five o'clock. Camp was laid out by the engineer and as soon as the lines were given the tents sprang up like a mushroom growth. The camp was named "Camp Black" in honor of the Governor of the State.

Colonel Hardin joined the regiment and assumed command on May 3rd, and the work of preparation for muster was immediately undertaken. Dr. Henry C. Baum of the Forty-first Separate Company of Syracuse was mustered in and assigned to the regiment as assistant surgeon of the Fifth. Major Lewis Balch, acting assistant surgeon-general, State of New York, who had been absent on leave since the arrival of the regiment, returned on the 5th and was mustered in on the 6th as surgeon.

The surgeon, assisted by Dr. Albert F. Brugman of the Second Battery, N. G., who was subsequently assigned to the regiment as assistant surgeon and mustered in on the sixteenth, immediately commenced the work of examining physically the men of the regiment. From four to twenty-two men were thrown out of each company. Their places were filled by recruits sent from the home stations, and on Saturday, the 14th, the work of examination of both officers and men was practically concluded and the regiment ready for muster.

On May 11, 1898, all the regiments of infantry were formed in line of masses for review by the Commander-in-Chief, the Hon. Frank S. Black, Governor of the State of New York, Troops A and C acting as escort. On May 16th the Third Battalion, composed of men from the Forty-sixth, Thirty-first, Thirty-sixth, and Thirty-seventh, designated respectively as Companies H, G, E, and F, were mustered in, and Major Austin A. Yates was mustered in and placed in command of

them; after which the companies composed of men from the Eighteenth, Thirty-second, Twenty-second and Ninth, designated respectively as Companies K, M, L and I, were mustered in, and Major James W. Lester was mustered in and placed in command. Part of the other battalion, being absent on provost guard duty, only two companies from it were mustered in, viz.: The Seventh and Twenty-first, designated as Companies B and D. Lieutenant-Colonel James H. Lloyd was mustered in and placed in command of the ten companies. The next day the companies composed of men from the Twelfth and Sixth, designated respectively, Companies C and A, were mustered in, after which the regiment was formed in line of masses and the oath was administered to Colonel E. E. Hardin, who was placed in command.

Notwithstanding almost incessant rain during the entire time at Camp Black, the regiment received great benefit from their drills and the men hardened into real soldiers. On May 18th the regiment started, pursuant to orders received May 15th, for Chickamauga, Georgia. There the regiment was brigaded with the Fifth Maryland and the Second Nebraska, under command of Colonel Hardin, as the Second Brigade, and attached to the First Division, commanded by Colonel Frederick Dent Grant of the Fourteenth New York Volunteer Infantry and the First Army Corps under Major-General Wade. The regiment received orders on May 30th to proceed on June 1st to Tampa, Florida. The Sixty-ninth, New York, was afterwards detached. Camp was made with the shelter tents and it was not thought worth while to put up the large tents, as the regiment expected to go aboard the transports at Port Tampa as a part of the first Cuban expedition under General William R. Shafter. Ten days' travel ration were issued and ammunition at the rate of one hundred rounds per man, and the officers' horses were sent aboard the transports. The regiment then awaited orders to move. The orders did not come, but after two days, back the horses came, and at the same time information that the capacity of the transports had been overestimated and they were already crowded. So the expedition left, leaving the Second New York behind.

On July 6th notification was received from Corps Headquarters that transportation would be ready to move two battalions of the regiment by transport to Santiago. Everybody got ready but as time moved on chances to see service under this order faded. The delay was occasioned by the insufficiency of transports, and then word came that the expedition would not be started owing to fever at Santiago. After a stay at Fernandina, Florida, the regiments broke camp. Peace had been proclaimed and the soldiers returned home, receiving a great welcome everywhere.

Third Regiment Infantry, New York Volunteers—When war with

Spain broke out the President, after Congress had passed an act to increase the army by volunteers, and authorizing the President to call for one hundred and twenty-five thousand men, made his requisition upon the Governor of New York for twelve regiments of infantry and two troops of cavalry, that being its quota, and expressed a desire that the regiments of the National Guard be used as far as possible and to be fully armed and equipped ready to take the field. As a result General Peter C. Doyle, commanding the 4th Brigade, National Guard, New York, was directed to organize one regiment from the separate companies of his brigade to be designated the Third Regiment Infantry, National Guard, New York.

The regiment was organized pursuant to the above order and upon the suggestion of the brigade commander, Brigadier-General Edward M. Hoffman, Inspector-General, S. N. Y., and Brigadier-General William M. Kirby, General Inspector of Rifle Practice, S. N. Y., were detailed by the Governor to act as colonel and lieutenant-colonel respectively; twelve separate companies of the brigade constituted the regiment formed into three battalions, and Captain William Wilson, 34th Separate Company, and M. B. Butler of the 42nd Separate Company, were nominated as majors.

Special Orders Nos. 70 and 72, Adjutant-General's Office, Albany, April 30, 1898, directed the moving of the several companies of the regiment from their home stations to Camp Black, Hempstead Plains, Long Island, New York, companies to consist of one captain, one first-lieutenant, one second-lieutenant, and eighty-one enlisted men, to be fully uniformed, armed and equipped, tents, cooking outfit, medicine chests and ammunition. About eighty-five per cent of the members of the regiment as mustered into the United Service were members of the National Guard before the necessity for volunteers was apparent and were made up from the best young men of The Bronx and other boroughs of New York and other communities.

On May 24th orders were received from the War Department for the regiment to move at once to Dunn Loring, Virginia, Camp Russell A. Alger. After the muster-in of the regiment considerable uncertainty prevailed among members as to what disposition was to be made of the organization. Upon the receipt of the orders to move, the soldiers were pleased to leave Camp Black, knowing little of the situations they were to meet.

At the Alger Camp the work of instructions and preparing the regiment for active service was continued with much vigor. The camp was not favorably located and the small drill grounds were divided with the Third Missouri Volunteers. About June 7th orders were promulgated by the War Department that the volunteer regiments should be

increased to the maximum strength of 106 men to the company. The regiment remained for the most part at Camp Alger until September, when the brief war having ceased the soldiers began to be mustered out and sent home.

Sixty-Ninth Regiment, New York Volunteers—On April 25th, Colonel Edward Duffy received a telegram from General Charles F. Roe, commanding the Fifth Brigade, National Guard, New York, requesting information as to the number of officers and men of the Sixty-ninth who would volunteer to serve in the armies of the United States for a period of two years, unless sooner discharged. On the following day Colonel Duffy reported to General Roe that the Sixty-ninth Regiment would volunteer to a unit to serve anywhere at which the country might require its services. The regiment at that time consisted of eight companies, numbering thirty-one officers and 529 enlisted men. Colonel Duffy was at once directed by Adjutant-General Tillinghast to recruit the regiment to twelve companies of three officers and eighty-one men each.

The work was begun without delay and on May 2nd the regiment marched from its armory with full ranks and proceeded to Camp Black at Hempstead Plains, Long Island. On arrival at that point tents were pitched and the work of drilling and equipping the regiment for active service was begun. On May 19th the regiment was mustered into the service of the United States by battalions amid the greatest enthusiasm of officers and men, an especial pride being shown in the fact that every member of the regiment who had passed the surgeon's physical examination answered his name as the Mustering Officer called it and took the oath of fealty to the government. After the ceremony of mustering the regiment was presented with a handsome stand of colors by "The Friendly Sons of St. Patrick" of the city of New York, the presentation address being made by Judge James Fitzgerald. The stand consisted of the National and State emblems and the historic green flag of Ireland.

On May 20th the regiment received with enthusiasm the order to proceed to Chickamauga and report to General Brooke, U. S. Army, and on May 24th it moved to entrain through the streets of New York amid scenes of immense popular enthusiasm, that were declared unequalled since the Civil War. On May 27th the regiment arrived at Chickamauga National Military Park and reported to General Brooke and was assigned camp site at about two miles from Lythe Station on the Southern Railroad. During the six days' stay at Chickamauga Park the regiment improved greatly, special attention being given to the extended order drill. The regiment was here equipped with a wagon train, consisting of thirty wagons and 121 mules. While at

Chickamauga the Sixty-ninth was attached to the Second Division, Third Army Corps.

On May 30th Colonel Duffy received orders from Major-General Brooke to proceed with the regiment to Tampa, Florida, and there report to General Carpenter, commanding the Second Brigade, Second (General Snyder's) Division, Fourth Army Corps, Major-General John J. Coppinger. On June 22nd the regiment struck camp and embarked on cars of the Southern Railroad, being divided into three sections. On June 6th the regiment marched into camp at Palmetto Beach, four miles east of Tampa. On June 18th the regiment was ordered to prepare to proceed to Jacksonville, Florida, but the order was later cancelled. In the meantime there was an addition of 303 recruits from The Bronx and other boroughs of New York. Owing to the bad weather the regiment moved to Fernandina on July 24th. On August 12th the regiment received orders to proceed to Huntsville, Alabama, and there go into camp. In a railroad accident near Birmingham, Alabama, Private Farley and Sergeant Glennon were killed and twenty-six other non-commissioned officers and privates and one civilian teamster were more or less injured. On August 29th the regiment reached Huntsville and were put into camp about a mile west of the town in a beautiful farming valley. In the meantime the war had ended and the aspirations of the members of the regiment for active service faded, and the regiment in course of time returned to New York.

Seventy-first Regiment, New York Volunteers—The Seventy-first is claimed to have been the first regiment not only in the Empire State but in the whole United States to respond to the President's request for troops. It would appear also to have been the first regiment in the United States to proceed to camp for mobilization and muster. It was the first also to be mustered into the volunteer service of the country, and the first New York troops to leave for the seat of war. Agreeable to the terms of the Hull bill, requiring a three battalion formation of four companies each for every regiment it was necessary to add two companies to make the Seventy-first, which had been a regiment of ten companies, of 100 men each, to conform to new requirements. In six days all twelve companies were enlisted to their full strength and in readiness to obey the order of the Adjutant-General to proceed to Camp Black, near Hempstead. On April 30th Company H, Captain Walter I. Joyce commanding, had proceeded to Hempstead and broken camp. To this company must therefore be given the honor of being the first National Guard troops in the United States to encamp for the purpose of examination and mustering into the service of the Volunteer Army.

From Hempstead the destination was Tampa. Instead of proceed-

ing to Tampa by sea, word soon came that the Spanish ships had been sighted off the Massachusetts coast and that the Government, fearing serious consequences to the troops, had decided to send them by rail. The regiment finally went in three sections, taking its position at Lakeland, near Tampa. It was felt from the beginning that the regiment's stay there would not be long, and this proved to be the case, for in one week's time orders came suddenly to strike camp, proceed to Ybor City, take train to Port Tampa and there board transport ships for the island of Cuba. On the afternoon of June 7th the anticipated order was received. Officers' call was at once sounded and men assembled in the company streets ready to receive their orders as soon as they might be received from their first sergeants. The terms of the order were: Prepare at once to remove men, tents and baggage; mules and wagons will be ready to move you, leaving Ybor City at six-thirty p. m., proceeding to Port Tampa, where transport ships await; provide twelve days' travel and fourteen days' field rations. It was not until the following morning that the train moved out and we proceeded to Port Tampa. There was an official order of fleet vessels, transports and convoys leaving Tampa Bay, Quarantine Station, Tuesday, June 14, 1898, the "Indiana" and several of the warships meeting the troops off Key West early Thursday morning.

Colonel Downs selected "Vigilancia" as the transport for the regiment, and the regiment was boarded immediately with the horses. This kind of work had been going on all day and night until when the work was finished there were thirty-nine transport ships, carrying eighteen thousand troops. When the fleet started there were seen in addition twelve United States vessels as convoys, floats for transferring troops and horses in tow of several of the vessels, and other ships. Then orders came that the expedition to Cuba was temporarily suspended. Then finally the fleet started through the Gulf of Mexico and land was sighted on the 17th.

On the 20th the highlands off the southern coast of Cuba were visible, the fleet having passed through the Windward Passage during the night. It was found that the fleet was off the Port of Guantanamo, where it was expected to land, but soon orders arrived to proceed towards Santiago, where all prepared to disembark. At five o'clock, June 23rd, the "Seguranca" steamed alongside the "Vigilancia" and General Shafter, commanding the Fifth Army Corps, standing upon the bridge, summoned Colonel Downs, ordering him to begin unloading his men at once, to work all night, each man to take one hundred rounds of ammunition and rations for three days. Some other troops had previously been disembarked at Baiquiri, which was made a principal base of supplies; both of these places had previously been bombarded by

the naval vessels, preparatory to the landing of troops. A feint was made to land troops at Aquadores, which was also bombarded, the attempt here being made to deceive the Spaniards as to the real place of landing. This attempt proved entirely successful, as all the troops were landed without any opposition from the enemy. It was early dawn of Friday, June 24th, when the Seventy-first Regiment, now entirely landed, bivouacked on the Siboney beach and at once breakfasted. A visit to the Cuban hamlet showed much destitution. The fathers of these families were Cuban insurgents, soldiers out in the mountains, doing guerilla work under General Garcia. For miles the country houses had been burned. This was General Weyler's plan to exterminate the insurgent spirit in Cuba. The Seventy-first pitched camp in the large engine house, the adjutant took the tool house as his office, and the colonel and his staff and field officers established headquarters in the house adjacent, where until the time of the bombardment, the Spanish colonel in charge of all forces at Siboney had resided. Within a few hours after landing the enemy fired upon the troops and the first engagement of the United States army on Cuban soil took place at Las Guasimas.

Shortly after breakfast there was seen ascending the mountain path, to the west of Siboney beach, the first United States Volunteer Cavalry, commonly known as Roosevelt's Rough Riders, though Colonel Wood commanded them, all dismounted. They walked into a body of Spanish troops thicketed in the jungle some four miles along the trail toward Sevilla. Orders came to the Seventy-first to proceed along the trail where had gone the First United States Cavalry and reinforce them, our troops having encountered the enemy, met with heavy losses and been repulsed. The troops had gone a little way when returning wounded men confirmed the troops' fear of a stern battle. General Hawkins ordered the Seventy-first to precede the First Regiment of the brigade, and followed himself with the Sixth and Sixteenth Infantry, Regulars. On went the Seventy-first over rocks and through thorns and past cacti and struggling in thick underbrush for some four miles, when just beyond the blockhouse that had been depopulated, the brigade was ordered to return to Siboney.

It seemed that Brigadier-General Young's Second Brigade of Cavalry had gone up the valley road with instructions to surround the enemy, if possible, and prevent their retreat into Santiago. The first United States Cavalry was directed to proceed along the mountain trail to the southward with a similar object in view. As these latter proceeded along the path and through thick bushes, quite unmindful of the nearness of the enemy, they received a volley of shots, which at once proved destructive and demoralizing. Volley followed volley into

the ranks of the First Cavalry, and simultaneously the Spanish engaged General Young's Cavalry Brigade along the valley road to the northward of Las Guasimas, between Siboney and Sevilla. The American troops fought bravely. There were some twenty killed and seventy wounded in this engagement.

On June 27th the Seventy-first marched with 200 rounds of ammunition, turning to the right at Sevilla five miles from Siboney. July 1st proved the eventful day of the Cuban campaign. On it were fought great battles. Both at El Caney and San Juan there took place battles of an unusual kind, with victorious results for America. Santiago is a city with natural fortifications of hills on every side. After the action at Las Guasimas the Spanish army had retired to their blockhouses and entrenchments, making a solid phalanx of troops of every arm of the service, extending from San Juan on the right toward the sea in an unbroken line three miles to the left, and at this point occupying the strongly garrisoned town of El Caney. After marching three miles along the road to San Juan Hill the Seventy-first was ordered to turn into a thickly-bushed field behind the Sixth. Very soon the bullets began to pour in thick and fast on the regiment. It was at least an hour under fire along the line of march. No smoke could be seen, but men fell dead and wounded on every side.

Who were the first to get to the top of San Juan Hill, where was the blockhouse, and where were the entrenchments from which the Spaniards fled as soon as they saw the Americans, it is not possible to say. The honor lies either with the Thirteenth, Sixth, Sixteenth or Twenty-fourth Infantry. But among these troops to arrive first upon the hill, where the enemy had been entrenched, were Company F, led by Captain Rafferty, who behaved in a quiet, dignified and gallant manner. The fighting continued until sundown, the fire being continuous and intense. The Seventy-first used their muskets with disastrous effect on the enemy. Nothing but desultory firing, and mostly on our side, occurred thereafter until the fourteenth, the day of the surrender. Santiago was surrounded and famine faced the enemy, and finally surrendered, relinquishing the entire province. Finally orders came for part of the regiment to take transport for Montauk. When the troops came to New York, a vociferous welcome greeted them. Sobs mingled with the cheers. The regiment had left New York over 1,000 strong, a body of magnificent athletes. It paraded on its return fewer than 350 men, few of whom were well. The Bronx did all in its power to welcome those of the men of the Seventy-first who belonged to it, as it had welcomed the other regiments, but the Seventy-first naturally was warmer to its heart than the others, for it had been in the thick of the battles at Santiago, and suffered more than any from the war.